This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS.

Invention
Commerce
Reformation
Religion
Soldiers
Rulers
Philanthropy
Statesmen
THE World's Progress
Education
Literature

THE World's Progress

AS WROUGHT BY

MEN AND WOMEN

IN

ART, LITERATURE, EDUCATION, PHILANTHROPY,

REFORM, INVENTIONS,

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL LIFE.

PREPARED BY

CAREFULLY SELECTED AUTHORS.

UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF

WILLIAM C. KING.

Illustrated.

1896

King-Richardson Publishing Co.,

Springfield, Mass.

CINCINNATI. DES MOINES. DALLAS. SAN JOSE.

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
583104
ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS
1912

COPYRIGHT, 1896,
BY
The King-Richardson Publishing Co.

All Rights Reserved.

Yet I doubt not through the ages
One increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened
With the process of the suns.

—*Tennyson.*

PREFACE.

THE plan of this work is to present in a single volume of convenient form for popular use a panorama of the world's progress in its great essentials of civilization.

The articles have been prepared by carefully selected writers, each having been chosen because of his special knowledge of the subject.

Several of the chapters are the combined product of two or more writers.

The work presents in single chapters what it has heretofore required volumes to tell.

The libraries of the world have been searched for their treasures, which have been arranged by master hands, thus bringing before the reader in a condensed form what would otherwise require years of personal study and research to acquire.

The volume is offered to the public with confident expectation that it will prove interesting, instructive, and stimulating to the great multitude of the world's busy workers.

W. C. K.

CONTENTS.

1.

OUR LITERATURE.

PAGE

How it Began. Service of Authors.

Earliest Bards sought after and honored—The great Authors of all ages the inspiration of the world and its guide to progress—The comforters, helpers, rebukers, uplifters of humanity. . . 51

2.

WOMAN IN LITERATURE.

Contributes to the Libraries of the World.

Literature permanently enriched by her writings—No sex discrimination in this field of work—Especially strong in fiction and in depicting character. 72

3.

STORY OF EDUCATION.

Molding Influence of Great Educators.

Modern educational methods the growth of the ages—The student of to-day the heir of the combined wisdom and experience of the seers and sages of all the past—Striking examples of great educational leaders. 100

4.

WOMAN IN EDUCATION.

Her Power and Influence Everywhere Prevalent.

Woman the natural teacher of the young—The teacher's work supplementary to that of the mother and only second to it in importance—Her work a prominent factor in educational progress. . 128

5.

SUPREMACY OF LAW.

Strong Factor in the Prosperity of Nations.

The foundation of civilization—The strong cord binding together municipalities, states, and nations—The Arbiter of claims, the Defender of the weak, the Avenger of wrongs. 148

CONTENTS.

6.

WOMAN IN LAW. PAGE

HER ABILITY AND SUCCESS AT THE BAR.

A powerful pleader by nature where her sympathies are enlisted—She has always been the adviser and counselor of statesmen, financiers, politicians, and patriots, and oftentimes the power behind the throne—Her past history and her growing success in this new field of the law show her fitness for the profession. . 157

7.

ORIGIN OF MEDICINE.

COURSE OF DEVELOPMENT. SERVICE OF PHYSICIANS.

The practice of medicine developed slowly from the superstitions of savage tribes to a science—The lengthening of the average human life by five years during the last half century a testimony to the skill and faithfulness of modern physicians. 165

8.

WOMAN IN MEDICINE.

HER SUCCESS AS A PHYSICIAN.

The woman doctor almost a necessity—Keen of insight, proved to be fully competent, a blessing wherever she goes—The greatest service rendered to humanity by woman physicians in half-civilized lands, where women have suffered and died by scores because the customs of their country would not admit of their being treated by male physicians. 177

9.

PROGRESS IN RELIGION.

WONDERFUL INFLUENCE IN CIVILIZING NATIONS.

The precepts of Christ the underlying principles of modern law and civilization—Christian civilization different from that of the ancients in that it provides for the weak and unfortunate—The balance of political power to-day in the hands of nominally Christian nations. 190

10.

WOMAN IN CHRISTIAN WORK.

A POWERFUL FACTOR IN SPREADING THE GOSPEL.

Her place in the pulpit, Sunday-school, home, mission, among the needy, unfortunate, ignorant—Her influence for good as universal as the air—A strong force in the spread of the gospel. . . 200

11.

PROGRESS OF INVENTIONS. PAGE

WONDERFUL RESULTS OF INVENTIVE GENIUS.

Inventive genius thought to have reached its climax in the last half of the nineteenth century—Time and distance so far annihilated that a man may be said to live more in five years now than he could in ten years half a century ago. 210

12.

WOMAN'S INVENTIVE SKILL.

HER INGENUITY IN MECHANICAL DEVICES.

Has invented many appliances for lightening her own work but has not made any great inventions as yet—The original inventor of the cotton-gin said to be a woman. 226

13.

WOMEN IN SCIENCE.

HER ACHIEVEMENTS IN SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

Many of her discoveries in the past given to the world in the name of a father or brother on account of her excessive modesty—Is now taking a high stand in higher mathematics and is doing original work in astronomy and physics. 234

14.

CIVIL GOVERNMENTS.

THEIR ORIGIN, DEVELOPMENT AND FUNCTION.

The home the original seat of government—Expanding into government of the tribe—As tribes became nations, various forms of government developed to meet the needs of national life. . . 245

15.

WOMEN AS SOVEREIGNS.

THEIR INFLUENCE AND POWER UPON THE THRONE.

Woman intrusted with the reins of government from dawn of history—Notable examples of strong characters upon the throne—Use and abuse of her authority. 261

CONTENTS.

16.

THE WORLD'S STATESMEN. PAGE

THEIR INFLUENCE AND POWER IN SHAPING NATIONS.

The World's leaders—Hold the destinies of nations in their hands—Great powers for good or for evil—Noble examples of statesmen in Europe and America. 280

17.

WOMAN IN JOURNALISM.

HER VALUABLE SERVICE TO THE DAILY PRESS.

Does a large amount of editorial work—Prominent in current literature—An enthusiastic worker. 297

18.

GREAT BATTLES OF THE WORLD.

HOW THE SOLDIER HAS MADE AND UNMADE NATIONS.

He welded together the mighty Roman Empire—He hastened the spread of Christianity—He gave the United States civil liberty—He purchased freedom for the slave. 306

19.

REFORMS AND REFORMERS.

THE WORK OF MARTYRS FOR THE CAUSE OF HUMANITY.

Mankind to-day enjoying religious and political freedom bought at a great sacrifice by those who went before—The necessity of jealously guarding privileges gained for humanity by so much suffering and loss of life. 322

20.

TEMPERANCE AND RESCUE.

WOMAN'S SERVICE AND SACRIFICE OF LOVE.

Woman's helping hand the means of lifting the fallen and discouraged—Work of the W. C. T. U. and kindred organizations. . 340

21.

PHILANTHROPY.

THE VOICE OF LOVE FOR HUMANITY'S GOOD.

Philanthropy the fruit of Christianity—The strong bearing the burdens of the weak—The work of great philanthropists—Names of noble men and women will live for ages, because of their love for the poor and unfortunate. 358

22.

WOMAN'S PHILANTHROPY.

BRILLIANT EXAMPLES OF SACRIFICE AND GENEROSITY.

She is a great organizer—Exercises wonderful energy—Benevolent toward the whole human family—Deeds the fruit of kindness. 373

23.

DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORERS.

HOW THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD WERE FOUND.

Story of early navigators, and the countries they discovered—The world enriched through perilous voyages of courageous men—The sailor a strong factor in spreading civilization. 393

24.

WOMAN ON THE PLATFORM.

WHAT SHE HAS DONE IN THE LECTURE FIELD.

Her platform work in the interest of humanity—American women speak to audiences, through interpreters, in twenty-five different languages—She is clear, sympathetic, and interesting—A power in reforms. 408

25.

SUCCESS OF MISSIONS.

POWER OF THE BIBLE IN FOREIGN LANDS.

The Bible the pioneer of civilization—Its uplifting influence apparent wherever it goes—The book alone known to change the character of entire tribes—The world yielding to the power of the gospel. 418

CONTENTS.

26.

TEACHING AND PREACHING. PAGE

WOMAN'S WORK IN MISSION FIELDS.

As teacher, counselor, helper, physician, and nurse she does an incalculable amount of good—Her heart and hand enlisted in the missionary work at home and abroad—Interesting examples. 441

27.

SONG AND INSTRUMENT.

POWER OF MUSIC IN REFINING NATIONS.

Music a natural expression of national life—Each civilized country its national hymn or song—No race without some form of music—The Germans the most musical people. 457

28.

WOMAN'S PART IN MUSIC.

HER WORK IN THE FIELD OF MUSICAL ART.

Supreme as singer—Wonderful power in moving others—Stronger as interpreter than as composer—Notable examples of genius. 470

29.

ACTORS AND THE STAGE.

THE WORK AND INFLUENCE OF GREAT ACTORS.

Genius in this art compels universal admiration—The great actors of to-day men of unblemished character—The leaders striving to elevate the stage. 485

30.

WOMAN AND THE DRAMA.

HER INFLUENCE AND POWER ON THE STAGE.

Many of the world's most powerful actors women—Brilliant successes in dramatic art. 501

31.

THE WORLD'S FINANCIERS. PAGE

THE STORY OF MONEY AND ITS POWER AMONG NATIONS.

Money the medium of exchange—One of the strongest characteristics of mankind—Use or abuse of money an index of character—A nation's prosperity largely in the hands of its financiers—Danger to a country from immense fortunes. 521

32.

THE BUSINESS WORLD.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF COMMERCE AND TRADE.

The steamship, the locomotive, the telegraph, the telephone, the bank, the office, the store, the shop, the farm—The great system of production and exchange known as the business world. . 548

33.

WOMAN IN BUSINESS.

WONDERFUL SUCCESS IN THE FIELD OF COMMERCE.

All kinds of business now carried on successfully by women—Financial independence of women a great blessing to themselves and to the race—Many illustrations of shrewdness and business tact. 565

34.

MEN AND MACHINERY.

GREAT PROGRESS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

Modern machinery the result of man's highest intelligence—Machinery constantly taking the place of human skill—Capacity for production multiplied—Cost of the finished product reduced. . 586

35.

BRUSH AND CHISEL.

THE ELEVATING INFLUENCE OF ART AND ARTISTS.

Painters and sculptors in the Old World and the New—Ancient Grecian sculpture still the ideal—The religious idea prominent in art. 597

36.

WOMAN IN THE STUDIO.

HER CONTRIBUTIONS TO ART.

A comparatively recent field for woman's efforts—One in which she has achieved commendable results both as sculptor and painter. 606

CONTENTS.

37.

HISTORY OF ARCHITECTURE. PAGE

DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRANDEST ART.

The building instinct natural to man—Architecture, art in building—Architecture an expression of civilization—Architecture of half-civilized nations grotesque rather than artistic. 629

38.

THE POWER OF COMBINATION.

RESULTS OF ASSOCIATED WORK IN MODERN TIMES.

Association and organization the tendency of the times—Its advantages and disadvantages—A great power for good or for evil—Examples of associated effort. 647

39.

WOMEN ASSOCIATED.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF ORGANIZED CO-OPERATION.

As business firms, mission boards, charity organizations, clubs for discussion of timely topics, for social purposes, and for political ends, women are finding that in union there is strength. . . . 658

40.

WOMAN IN SOCIETY.

HER POWER IN MOLDING CHARACTER.

Her approval or disapproval the dictum of society—Too often trivial, or even serious, vices have the sanction of her consent or indifference—The virtues she demands exist—The causes she champions flourish. 679

41.

WOMAN AND THE HOME.

THE FOUNTAIN OF STRENGTH OF STATE AND NATION.

Around the hearthstone crystallize the destinies of men—The nobler, broader-minded, better-informed the woman, the stronger the home influence for all that makes for that righteousness which exalteth a nation. 693

Authors of The World's Progress.

F. B. Sanborn,

Concord, Mass.

Sixteen years at the head of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities have brought Mr. Sanborn into close contact with philanthropic work. Probably no individual is better informed on this subject or so well fitted to give the history of the progress of philanthropy.

Prof. William G. Ward, A.M.,

Syracuse University.

Prof. Ward occupies the chair of English Literature at Syracuse University. He is among the foremost scholars in this department of educational work and research, having made a special study of the origin and progress of language and literature.

F.B.Sanborn
W.G.Ward.

Authors of The World's Progress.

Rev. George Winfred Hervey, D.D.,

New York,

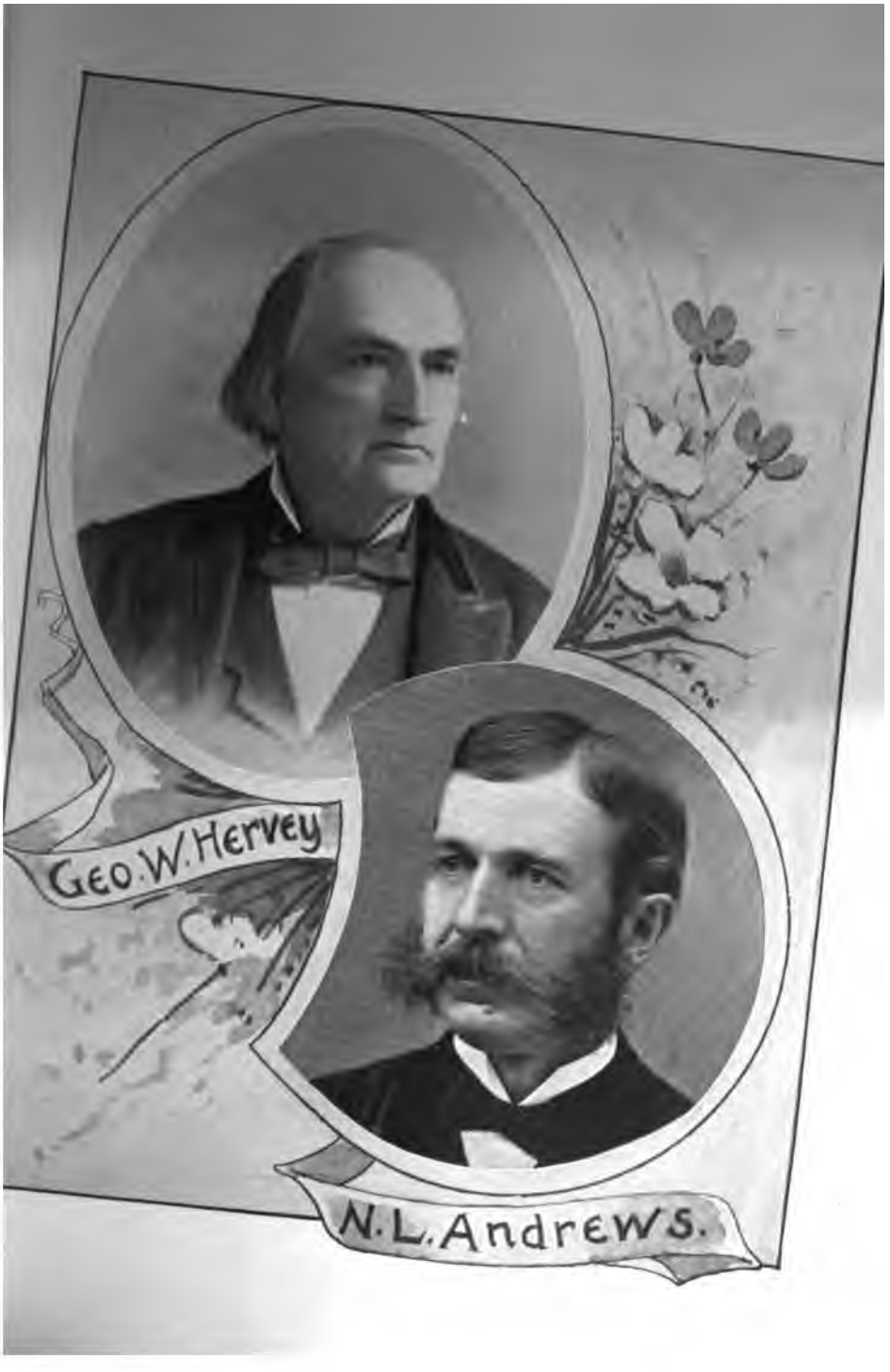
Author of Story of Baptist Missions, Etc., Etc.

Dr. Hervey is an author of recognized ability, having written several standard books of great value. He has traveled extensively in foreign lands, investigating the countries, studying the peoples, and gathering information not otherwise obtainable. His rich experience, long years of study, and literary research afford him a rich fund to draw upon for a work of this kind.

N. L. Andrews, D.D., LL.D.,

Dean of Colgate University.

Dr. Andrews was chosen to write for this work because of his breadth of scholarship and superior literary ability. His association with its authorship will be hailed with pleasure by college students and others interested in the history and progress of education.


GEO. W. HERVEY
N. L. ANDREWS.

John S. Billings, M.D., LL.D., D.C.L., Oxon.,

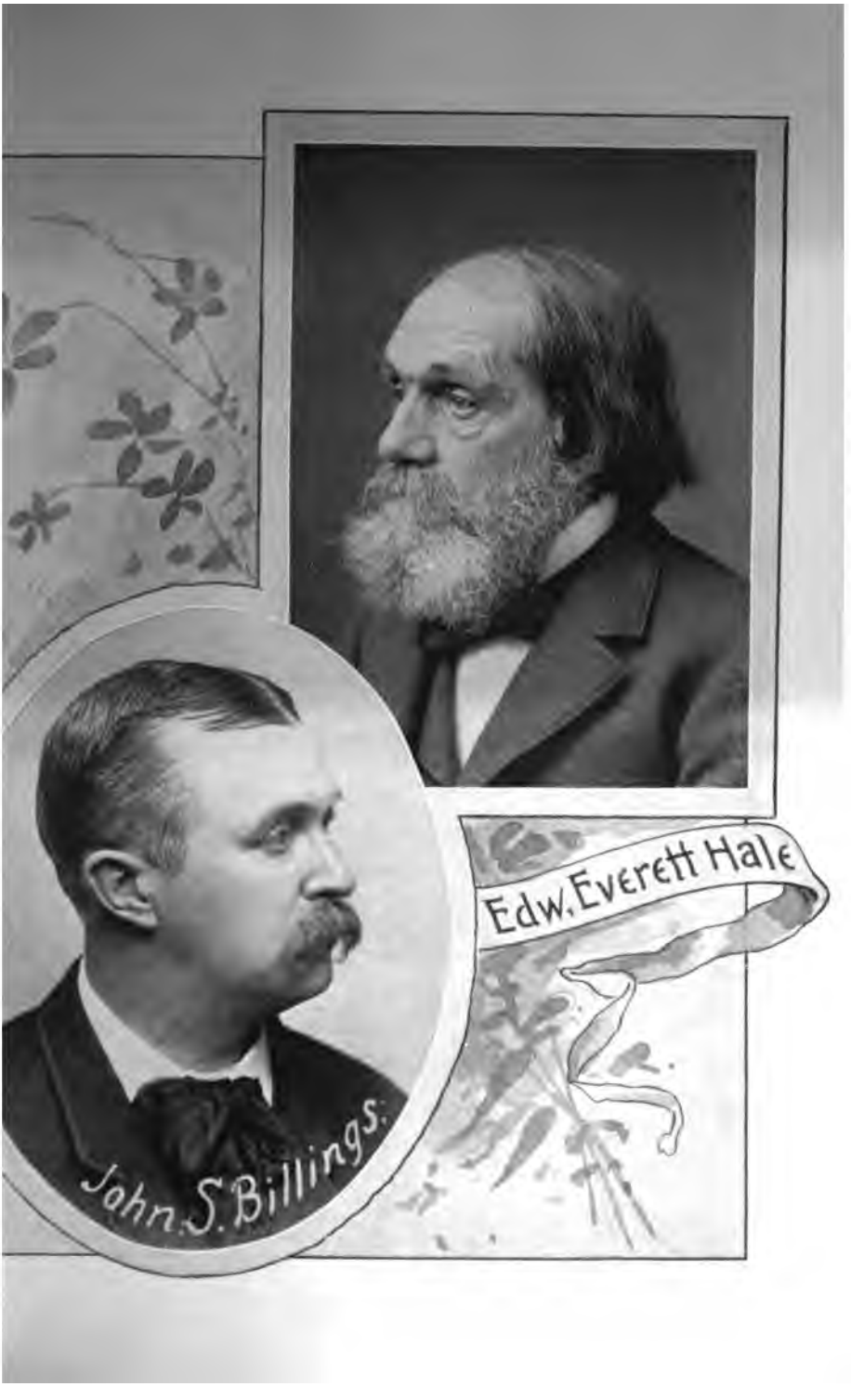
Philadelphia, Pa.

Dr. Billings is Deputy Surgeon-General of the United States Army (retired). He was delegated to select the medical library for the government at Washington. His position with the government was recently resigned to accept a chair in medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Billings is acknowledged as authority by the entire medical profession.

Rev. Edward Everett Hale, D.D.,

Boston, Mass.

Dr. Hale is known throughout two continents as one of the foremost preachers and writers of the times. By his voice and pen he has exerted an almost unequaled influence in intellectual circles for many years, and by his personal character and unselfish devotion to the good of humanity he has strongly endeared himself to all classes of people. He is deeply interested in the spread of popular education, the alleviation of poverty, and the enlightenment of the masses.


Edw. Everett Hale
John S. Billings.

Russell H. Conwell, D.D., L.L.D.,

Brilliant Preacher, Orator, and Author. Pastor of Baptist Temple. President of Temple College.

Philadelphia.

Dr. Conwell is pastor of the largest church in America. Temple College has the largest number of students directly and indirectly connected with it of any educational institution in the United States. He is to-day one of America's most popular platform lecturers and as such is in great demand in all parts of the land. His lecture income is devoted wholly to benevolent work.

William A. Mowry, A.M., Ph.D.,

Hyde Park, Mass.

Dr. Mowry is recognized as one of the educational leaders of New England. His whole life has been devoted to educational work, as instructor, editor, and author. He is in constant demand as lecturer before educational assemblies both east and west. He is president of the Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute, the largest and most important high grade summer school on the continent.

Russell. H.
Conwell.
Wm. A. Mowrey

Z. Willis Kemp, A.M., Ph.D.,

French American College,

Springfield, Mass.

Dr. Kemp received his college education at Bowdoin, Longfellow's Alma Mater, and obtained his degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Wesleyan University. He is professor of Greek and Latin and lecturer on special topics at the French American College. His special historical research makes him a very able and desirable co-author of this work.

Hon. H. W. Cannon,

Ex-Comptroller of the National Currency. President Chase National Bank, New York.

Mr. Cannon is one of the foremost financiers of the nation. President of one of the very large banks of the country, having the finest banking rooms in the world. He has served as comptroller of the currency and is considered high authority on questions of finance.

Z.W.Kemp
H.W.Cannon

Joseph Jefferson,

America's Favorite Actor.

Mr. Jefferson is an artist of the first magnitude, the leading actor on the American stage. A man of high moral tone and fine sensibilities. His literary productions have been of great merit and eagerly read by thousands. His lectures have been largely attended and widely copied by the press.

George H. Story,

Superintendent of the Metropolitan Museum of Art,

New York City.

Mr. Story's position as superintendent of the art museum of the great metropolis is evidence of his knowledge, experience, and taste in the world of art, both ancient and modern. Probably no man in the broad land is better qualified to write on the history and progress of art.

oseph Jefferson
Geo. H. Storey.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore,

Boston, Mass.

Mrs. Livermore is known throughout America for her noble service to her country during the civil war, her efforts in behalf of the emancipation of woman, and her devotion to philanthropic work. She is a brilliant writer and lecturer on the subjects that lie near her heart, and as such has more applications than she can accept. She is popular among all classes and beloved by the Nation, whose gratitude she richly deserves.

Mrs. May Alden Ward,

Cambridge, Mass.

Mrs. Ward is a woman of remarkable ability in the literary and lecture field. She is in constant demand to lecture on popular literary subjects, and is a prominent leader among the woman's literary clubs of New England.

Mrs. Helen Byington Emens,

Fulton, New York.

Mrs. Emens was educated at Falley Seminary and was for some time Principal of Hannibal Academy. She has devoted much time to literary work and research and is a writer of unusual force and clearness. Her contributions to current literature under another name have been widely read and highly praised.

Mary A. Livermore

May Alden Ward

Helen Byington Emens.

T. O'Conor Sloane, E.M., A.M., Ph.D.,

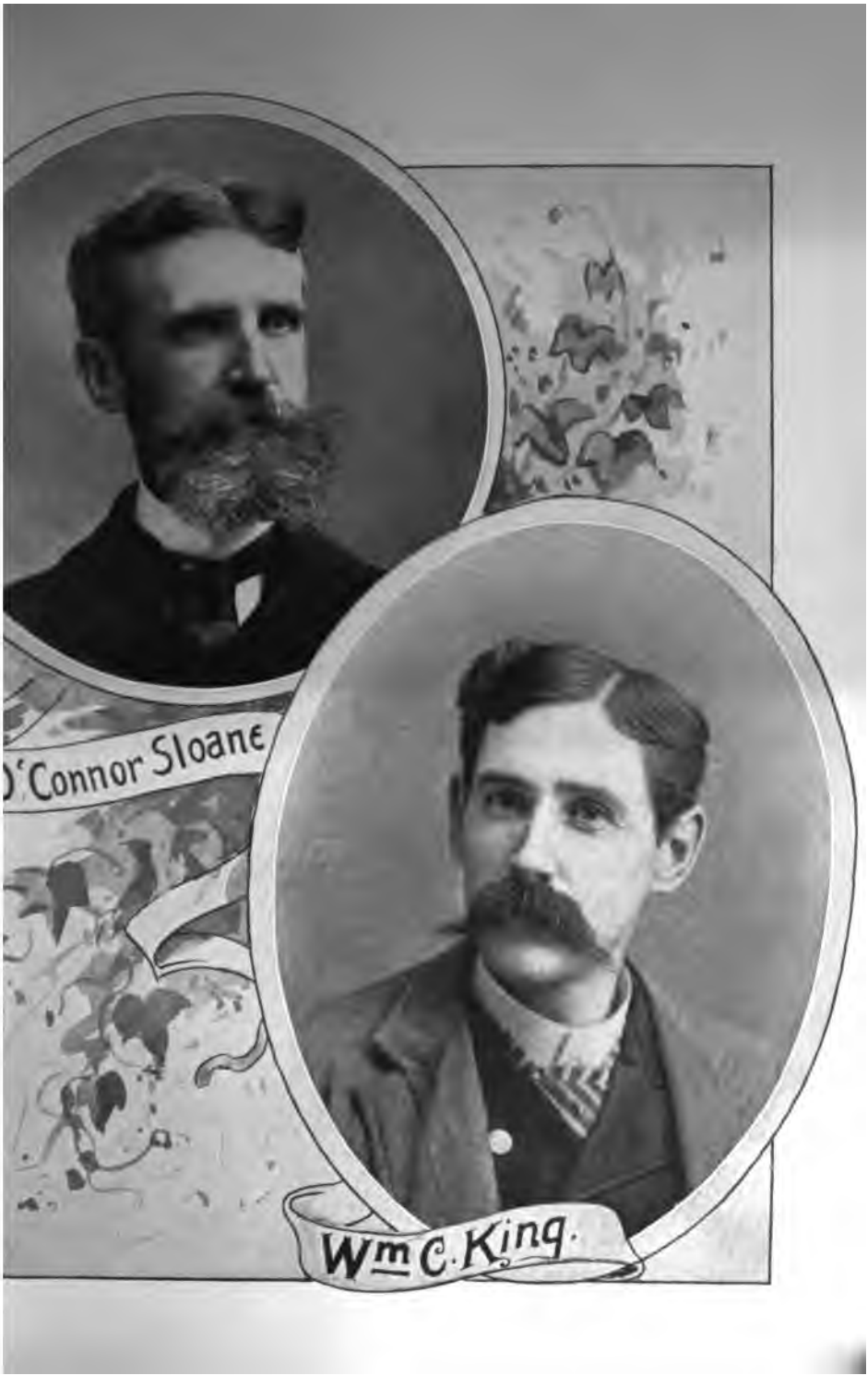
Editorial Staff Scientific American.

Dr. Sloane is associated with the foremost scientific journal of the world. He is thoroughly acquainted with the progress of inventions and scientific discovery. In addition to his editorial work on the Scientific American he has edited several books and contributed much valuable material to various journals.

William C. King,

President King-Richardson Publishing Co.

Educated at Milton College, Wis. A practical and successful business man. One of the directors of the Springfield National Bank, also director in two educational institutions. He has planned several valuable books, securing the services and co-operation of many of the foremost thinkers and writers of the land. These books have proved very popular and have met with an almost unprecedented sale. This book is of his planning and supervision.


O'Connor Sloane
Wm C. King.

INTRODUCTION.

THE great value of this volume will be most readily appreciated by busy people. It gleans from the records of the past and presents in tangible and interesting form the story of the triumphal march of civilization.

The gathering of such an amount of valuable information from so wide a range into the compass of a single volume is a remarkable literary achievement. It would require much time, the resources of an extensive library, and long research for any one person to acquire the knowledge contained in single chapters of this book.

The study of this volume will largely increase the working capital (knowledge) of the individual reader, thus augmenting the active force of the world. Knowledge increases hope; hope is necessary to progress. When hope dies in the heart of a man or a nation further progress is impossible. He who quickens hope among men is a benefactor of the race. Knowledge is the measure of hope. Ignorance is hopeless because it knows nothing to hope for.

The greater the knowledge of a subject or force the stronger and more eager the expectancy concerning it. No one anticipates so much for the betterment and enrichment of mankind from the development of that recently utilized force, electricity, as he who knows most about it. As he realizes what almost boundless possibilities are open before him, with what an intense eagerness he prosecutes his experiments! No other individual can so appreciate the advantage to the world of the recent and wonderful discovery in photography as he who knows most about it. No man

hopes so eagerly for the heavenly life as does he to whom the spirit of God has revealed most.

None look forward with such fond expectations of good to come to this country through the industrial and legal emancipation of woman as the writers who have here endeavored to present the story of her work already accomplished.

No man so longs to see this earth one or two centuries hence as he who knows most of its progress in the past, especially in the last century. Never has the world made such progress as during the last half century, and never so rapidly as at the present time.

This volume aims to show what that progress has been, rather than to tell in detail how it was accomplished, as that would be a long story, requiring volumes for each subject, instead of single chapters.

The work is designed for that great army of men and women, in this the busiest age in the history of the world, who have neither the time nor the opportunity to become familiar with the many volumes whose essence is here so clearly given in single articles.

It will be noted that the book is a dual one. It aims to tell of woman's progress as well as that of man. It marks the change in the condition of women since the beginning of the nineteenth century, especially in our own country.

In the literary, professional, and commercial field of labor she has achieved a large measure of success and is gradually taking positions of high honor and trust. To woman as well as to man life is given for development; we must grow if we would live. When the mind ceases to expand intellectual death soon follows. If every person to whose hand this volume comes will read its pages carefully, it will increase his store of knowledge, broaden his horizon of hope, and enlarge his sphere of usefulness, resulting in greater success in his life work and a larger measure of enjoyment.

Photo-Engraved Illustrations.

The Illustrations of

THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

were designed by W. C. King, and the drawings executed by the following well-known artists:—

WALTER C. PETTEE of New York City.

FRANK MYRICK of Boston, Mass.

GEORGE S. PAYNE of Springfield, Mass.

The original drawings were photo-engraved by the Gill Engraving Company of New York City, who also photo-engraved the photographs of the authors direct from their latest photographs.

Progress Of Literature.

HOW IT BE /ICE OF AUTHORS.

ITERATURE is a picture of life portrayed in language. But a picture of life por ed in language is not necessarily literature. Of all the writings in the world only that is literature which gives a true picture of l life in proper language. Omitting for the present the ques- ı of language, there is left the statement that literature must a true picture of real life. By real we do not mean according ıny narrow view or preconceived theory, for life is so broad almost to defy definition. A great many writings are now arded as literature which formerly would have been ex- ded therefrom.

De Quincey's formula divides all writings into the literature knowledge and the literature of power. The literature of owledge might include arithmetic, or any other kind of inert terial, and therefore is not literature at all, in a restricted se. But the moment you mention power you have touched attribute of life. Force may be blind, but power means lligence, something which thinks, feels, acts.

Life, then, is what the picture must portray, if it is to be rature. The kind of life will vary with the age and the

death. Added to it will be the praise of the gods, and some elementary recognition of the relations of man to God and to nature. With the rise of cities and the coming of civilization prose will probably be developed, and the lyric song of the tribal state will take on a more artistic form. If artists of sufficient genius arise, the old songs of the tribal days may be forged into an epic, the great deeds of the past becoming idealized as distance lends enchantment. Especially will the more complicated life of the city lead to the close analysis of character and motives, until the drama takes form, and gives us a second one of the great art forms of literature. Around a few models of this kind a national literature will spring up, providing the nation retains its independence long enough. Such are the national literatures of Greece, of Israel, and of India. In each case the literature will be found to reveal the national life of the people. The dominant thought of each age will become the subject for literary elaborations. Without conscious effort the artist will give expression, and perhaps perfect and musical expression, to the deepest thoughts and feelings of his race.

It is at this point that the form enters into the case. Not all that is written about the life of the people and the real thought of the day becomes literature; it is only when an artist arises with sufficient genius to express the beauty and the power of a civilization that a work of literature is created. The form of the expression is almost as important as the thought, indeed it is a part of the thought, inseparable from it, when perfect enough to secure its immortality. The great writers of every age have used thought which was largely in existence before them. It is the form into which they have cast the idea that gives to the product its value. The raw material of art is found in every age and in every country, and sometimes accumulates for centuries before the great artist arises who is to perceive its value and give it a proper expres-

sion. It [illegible] l outlook, the deep insight, and the capacity for beautiful and powerful expression which makes the artist. And yet the substance cannot be divided from the form, they proceed together from the heart of the artist, and are absolutely inseparable. The style is as large a part of the work as the thought. Indeed, the thought is brought to perfection by the perfectness of the expression. We may be familiar with the thought or the feeling before, but we are thrilled by the startling reality with which it is reflected in language. The same thought imperfectly expressed would not be literature. It is not fine writing, it may not be fine language, but it is the language which fully and perfectly renders the beauty and the power of the sentiment. It is the deep feeling, perhaps the unconscious feeling, of the artist which puts upon it the stamp of genius, which gives it the vital breath of literature.

Not only is literature a picture of the life and thought of an age or a nation, it is also a picture of the best life and the best thought. As a rule it is found that great literature follows great events, and the greatest literature the greatest events. Especially do noble and heroic actions inspire noble literature. We know this was true of the Hebrews. It was probably true of the Hindoos. It was certainly true of the Greeks. The great age of Pericles with its wonderful outburst of literary genius followed immediately after the noble acts of patriotism by which the Persian invaders were repelled. Of the three greatest Attic dramatists, Æschylus fought in the Persian wars, Sophocles, as a boy of sixteen, sang in the chorus which celebrated the victory, and Euripides was born on the day of the battle of Salamis. Every other form of literary art flourished during this great age, which not only honored itself, but reflected a higher honor on the ages which had preceded it. This was the fifth century before Christ, and was probably the most notable age for literature which the world has ever seen.

Had the Persian wars ended differently, it is probable that no such age would have ensued. The world would still be sleeping under the influence of Persian despotism. We cannot possibly imagine the existence of the succeeding literary ages without the age of Pericles.

Four hundred years later we encounter the next great age of literary activity, in the Augustan era of Rome. Although it was a natural outgrowth of the Grecian influence and largely built upon the Grecian models, nevertheless it deeply and powerfully reflected the social and political life of the day. It also followed the great events which attended the overthrow of the republic and the founding of the empire of the Cæsars. The preceding age of Cicero, so full of tumultuous civil commotion, was now followed by an age of peace and security. Augustus delighted in the victories of peace, and Mæcenas, the literary patron of the day, was the unfailing friend of genius. Rome was wealthy and powerful, and all the circumstances surrounding the age were calculated to inspire literary activity. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Livy are the great men who made their day remarkable. The Latin language was now almost universal, and was destined to remain so for ages to come. Greek, on the other hand, was destined soon to become, practically, a dead language. The pre-eminence of this age was, therefore, a fortunate thing for literature, since literary inspiration was destined to be dependent for a long time to come on the Latin literature. The corrupt age which followed and which drew forth the *Satires* of Juvenal was destined to destroy both the national life and the spirit of literature. A thousand years of anarchy and stagnation were to ensue. This was the period of the Middle Ages, throughout all of which man looked back to the age of Augustus for literary illumination.

The Dark Ages ended with the age of Dante. Although more than twelve centuries had intervened, Dante was glad to recognize Virgil as his master and guide. The ancient and the

modern wo in Dante, whose *Divine Comedy* easily ranks him among the three or four greatest writers of the world. He was the first product of the great awakening whereby Italy was arousing herself from the long sleep of the Middle Ages. Together with Petrarch and Boccaccio, he was the forerunner of the revival of learning, and helped to create the spirit which resulted in that astonishing outburst of mental and spiritual illumination. This was the Italian Renaissance which spread rapidly over all Europe. Dante and Petrarch wrote in Italian, whereby Italy becomes the first modern nation with a national literature. The invasions of Italy by the French, the Spanish, and the Germans soon afterwards led to the utter destruction of all national life and literature, but not until the other nations had caught the spirit of the new learning.

While the Italian revival of learning was spreading over Europe, another movement of equal importance was taking its rise in Germany. This was the Protestant Reformation, which, together with the religious wars resulting from it, was probably the most important revolution which had ever occurred in Europe. Owing to her isolated position England had been somewhat later than the other nations in receiving the influence of the Italian Renaissance. The result was that both the Reformation and the Renaissance reached her shores at the same time. This influence combined with others produced such a ferment in men's minds as was never before paralleled. The result was the age of Elizabeth, to understand which we must recount some of the forces which then united to inspire the minds of men. The discoveries of Galileo and Copernicus had led to the discovery of America. Englishmen would return home every year with glowing stories of the new world with its surprising extent and riches, inviting explorers. Added to this was the circumnavigation of the globe, which had rendered China and Japan almost as really new discov-

eries as America. The invention of printing had rendered possible the widespread circulation of the great classics of antiquity, which had just been revealed to men through the Italian Renaissance. To all this must now be added the enthusiasm of the Reformation. The Bible had just been translated into English, and was now circulated for the first time as a printed book in the popular tongue. It is probable that no such combination of inspiring motives will ever again be crowded into one age. Nor is it likely that equal results will ever again ensue in a single generation. Fifty years before this the English language would not have been perfect enough to answer the requirements of Shakespeare. Fifty years later the age had become too critical to nourish as free an imagination as Shakespeare's. The Elizabethan age was easily the greatest era of creative literary activity in modern times. It is impossible to understand such an age, much less to describe it. The names of Spenser, Sidney, Raleigh, Marlowe, and Greene prepared the way for the coming of such mighty names as Shakespeare, Bacon, Ben Jonson, Fletcher, and Milton. After them are a multitude of every grade and kind of literary excellence.

Among these names there are two which are still rising in the estimation of mankind, the names of Shakespeare and Milton. All the modern nations have now recognized the preeminence of Shakespeare. There seems to be a general disposition to recognize Carlyle's estimate, that; of all men who have left record of themselves on this planet, he is the chief. In character study he has avoided the exaggeration of the preceding ages. He has pictured men as they really are, in every walk of life. He is the most universal of writers, a world-poet who is recognized by men of all languages. The eighteenth century did not fully appreciate him. But his reception in Germany by the writers of the romance movement might be called the apotheosis of Shakespeare. Germany adopted him

and has fill with translations and comments which have never been excelled. The mass of literature which has grown up around his writings is unparalleled except in the case of Dante. He is probably the greatest moral force in literature. His morality is absolutely the morality of the Bible. There is more of the Bible in his writings than in all the rest of our great literature.

Shakespeare came to London about 1588. By the execution of Mary, Elizabeth had just brought down upon herself the wrath of the Spanish monarchy. The effort to avenge Mary by the Spanish Armada had failed, and all England was rejoicing over the deliverance from Philip.

Shakespeare undoubtedly commenced his work by revising plays then in existence, the three parts of *Henry VI.* and probably *Titus Andronicus.* These were followed by a number of plays, written more or less in imitation of existing models, as *The Comedy of Errors, Love's Labor Lost, The Taming of the Shrew.* He never returned to the form of either of these plays. In *Two Gentlemen of Verona* he finally arrived at the combination of serious work with comedy, which gave him a model for a long time to come. *The Merchant of Venice, Much Ado About Nothing, As You Like It, Twelfth Night, Winter's Tale,* and *Tempest* were all written upon this model. They were sometimes called tragi-comedies. They combine the noblest sentiment with high comedy, low comedy serving as an interlude between the serious parts.

While writing these plays, he completed the great series of English historic tragedies: of these, the first, *King John,* and the last, *King Henry VIII.,* are not connected with the others. The remaining eight are so connected as really to constitute one great tragedy, though they admit of subdivision into two parts of four plays each. *Richard II.,* the two parts of *Henry IV.* and *Henry V.* constituting one series, while the three parts of *Henry VI.* and *Richard III.* constitute the other. This great

tragedy is the story of the Lancastrian usurpation of Bolingbroke, who became Henry IV. The War of the Roses followed, as the avenging Nemesis pursuing a deed of usurpation. In Henry VII. the two opposing parties are united by his marrying the representative of the house of York. Henry VIII. was, therefore, descended from both contending parties, and the nation was reconciled in the house of Tudor. This is why there was so much enthusiasm and loyalty during the reign of Elizabeth, who represented all parties. Shakespeare does not hesitate to praise her and her ancestors; and yet he cannot be said to give extravagant praise to royalty. His patriotic sentiments were not in advance of the universal sentiment of the English people of that date.

About the time that he had finished the English histories, and his great series of comedies, he met with a great misfortune by being in some way connected with the treason of Essex. Nearly all his friends were banished, slain, or imprisoned. About this time Elizabeth died, and he seems to have lost some other dear friend. As a result of all these disappointments, his mind turned to the great series of tragedies which then engaged him for a number of years,—the treason against Julius Cæsar, the usurpation of Macbeth, the revolt of Lear's daughters against their father, the series of events by which Hamlet was cheated out of his inheritance, and the long tragedy resulting therefrom, the domestic story of Othello's overthrow, and the dark and turbulent comedies of *Measure for Measure* and *Troilus and Cressida*. After this there is another bright period, in which he wrote *Tempest*, the *Winter's Tale*, *Cymbeline*, and *Pericles*, in each of which there is the binding up of broken ties, the reconciliation of father and daughter or husband and wife, and a universal recognition of the value of family ties such as could not occur without some common producing cause. He had become a stockholder in the theatrical companies of his day, had earned a compe-

tency, had retired from the active practice of his profession, had purchased a home in Stratford, and was living there in apparent tranquillity at the time of his death, which occurred in his fifty-second year. But few of the details of his life are known, but the best life of Shakespeare is his written works, in which every one has an equal share.

The Elizabethan era closed brilliantly, with the great work of Milton. He was not appreciated during the eighteenth century, but with the recognition of Dante in the nineteenth century has also come a recognition of Milton. Matthew Arnold says he is our only representative of the grand style, and there is an undoubted disposition to recognize his rank on all hands.

The succeeding age of Dryden and Pope was a surprising decline, and only to be explained by the fact that it was an effort to imitate foreign models instead of carrying on the work so well begun in Shakespeare's day. But the causes were natural enough. Upon the continent of Europe the Renaissance had found its chief lodgment in France, where the age of Louis XIV. was claiming the attention of the whole world. There have been few illustrations in history of a monarch who gave more attention to the pride of literary glory than did Louis XIV. He gathered around him all the great literary men of France, and the age is properly called by his name. Corneille, Racine, Molière, La Fontaine, Boileau, were the great men who adorned his court. Of these Molière is the French Shakespeare, and although his characterizations are exaggerated, they are, nevertheless, of a very high order. The whole spirit of the day is expressed in loyalty to classic models, and in strict adherence to the classic unities of the time, place, and action. It was a rhetorical age, in which great attention was given to form, and the effort to imitate this perfection in form was what led to the decadence of the English literature of Dryden and Pope. But if the poetry of Pope's age was inferior,

the great attention to form was not entirely in vain; it led to the development of what is sometimes called the Augustan age of English literature, because it developed the polished prose of Addison, Steele, Swift, and DeFoe. Indeed, the prose writings of these men are better entitled to rank as literature than are the writings of the poets of this period. The age was followed by that of Goldsmith and Samuel Johnson, which was largely a continuation of the same influences that had preceded.

With the end of the century, however, came another revolution, only second in importance to the era of Shakespeare. It was the Romance movement, which took form in Germany, England, and, finally, in France. In Cowper and Burns, we can discern the foreshadowing of better things to come, but it was not until men's minds were aroused by the French Revolution, which did for politics what the Reformation had done for religion, that the Romance movement was really inaugurated. Sympathy with the French Revolution led to republican and democratic movements all over Europe. These, in turn, led to the revival of the folk-songs and the early literature of all nations. Indeed, they resulted chiefly in the new national movement which spread over Europe, and which finally rescued her from the all-engulfing power of Napoleon. It started the several counter revolutions which resulted in the independence of Spain, Germany, and the smaller European states. The Romance movement, however, originated in Germany, and, strange to say, was born from the influence of Shakespeare.

During the age preceding the Revolution, Germany had been entirely under the literary influence of the age of Louis XIV. The effort to imitate foreign models had been as destructive of national literature in Germany as in England; but with Lessing came a man who determined to free his country from the bondage of foreign literatures. His lifelong effort was aided and completed by the work of Goethe, Schiller, and Herder. All of these men had received their first inspiration

from Shakespeare, and spent a good part of their life under his guidance; but the literary movement which we have described as directed by Goethe, Schiller, and Lessing was also backed up by a powerful critical movement. The two Schlegels, Frederick and A. W., Humboldt, Hardenberg (Novalis), Tieck, Uhland, Kleist, and Heine constituted a school of literary criticism which defended the Romance movement with a scholarship and acumen such as had never before been exhibited in any single literary controversy. They collected the folk-songs and fairy tales of Old Germany; they republished the poem of the Niebelungen, translated and republished Dante, Ariosto, Calderon, and Cervantes. Chief of all, they rehabilitated Shakespeare. They recognized him as a German on account of his Saxon vocabulary; they boldly claimed him as their own; they translated his works time after time, and wrote commentaries upon them, until the importance of the movement is worthy to be called the rediscovery of Shakespeare. The thoughtful comments of Tieck, Gervinus, and Ulrici have never been equaled. Indeed, most of our modern Shakespeare scholarship is drawn from these writers. The great Goethe joined in the Shakespeare criticism, and said that it seemed to him as if the book of fate was open before him, the tempests of life were sweeping its pages hither and thither. Until his fiftieth year Goethe was largely under the influence of this great Shakespearian revival.

During all this time, it must be admitted that little was known or thought about Shakespeare in England. When Wordsworth and Coleridge, as young men, made their trip to Germany, they encountered this influence for the first time. Coleridge met Tieck at Göttingen, and there imbibed the Shakespeare enthusiasm. Upon his return to England, he immediately began lecturing upon the art of Shakespeare, and became one of the foremost Shakespearian critics of the day. The poetic writings of Coleridge and Wordsworth came to the

attention of Walter Scott, who was then thought to be the best literary antiquarian in Scotland. He had been giving his time for many years to reclaiming old Scotch literature, the unpublished songs and ballads of the Scottish clans. He had been inspired by the German Romance movement, and had translated some of the ballads of Bürger. He now began imitating the style of the ballads in original writings, producing *The Lay of the Last Minstrel* and *Marmion*. The influence of Coleridge is plainly to be discerned in these writings, and it was a combination of Coleridge and the German Romanticists which had been Scott's molding influence.

Lord Byron also was now beginning to write, and he was inspired by the model of Scott, whom he soon equaled and surpassed by his early romantic poems. The chain of influence from the German Romanticists down to Byron is very distinct and easily followed by a careful observer. But with four such men as Wordsworth, Coleridge, Scott, and Byron, together with the lesser lights that gather around them, it was no longer necessary for English literature to be inspired by foreign models. The English Romance movement was under full headway, and the later writings of Byron, Scott, Wordsworth, Southey, Shelley, and Keats were but the natural culmination of a movement begun with so much enthusiasm. The Romance movement in England may be said to have ended with Shelley and Keats, though it was destined to exert a far wider influence in combination with other forces during the Victorian era.

Throughout the history of the Romance movement, its natural antagonist had been the surviving influence of the old classic age of Louis XIV. This influence had remained predominant in France during the Romance movement of Germany and England, but with the coming of Victor Hugo the same battle was to be fought out in French literature. With the publication of Hugo's *Hernani* in 1830, the Romance

movement had acquired a distinct recognition in France, and under the leadership of Hugo it was successfully established as at least one of the recognized schools, if not the dominant school, in French literature. France was the last of the great nations to recognize Shakespeare, and it came about as one might expect, through the Romance movement, and the persistent endeavors of Victor Hugo. So prominent has the influence of Hugo become that the latter half of the nineteenth century might properly be designated as the era of Victor Hugo.

If the Romance movement proper ended in England with Shelley and Keats, it was not because it ceased to exist, but rather because its enemies had been driven out of the field, and there was no longer any occasion for controversy. It might be more proper to say that the classic school, so called, had ceased to exist, for there is really no occasion for employing that word after the day of Victor Hugo. The literary schools since then have rather consisted in divisions or subdivisions of the Romantic school than of any division growing out of the old classic and romantic controversy. The Romanticists themselves became divided into the realist and idealist schools, the realist corresponding in some measure to the old classic school, and the idealist seeming to be the more natural continuation of the Romantic school.

The national literatures of the preceding years had now, however, given way to what has properly become world literature. National lines no longer divide the schools of criticism, and literary influences extend without hindrance from Russia to America, and from Norway to Italy. The divisions of literature, from this time, are less clearly determined, owing to the infinite variety which literary forms have assumed. The rise of the novel, which had its origin in the nineteenth century and the days of Walter Scott,—notwithstanding the many so-called novels of the former period,—the rise of the novel has

brought many new questions into literary controversy. Many writings which in previous ages would have taken the form of the drama, or of narrative literature, are now constructed under the form of a novel. Indeed, many purely polemical disquisitions which would not formerly have ranked as literature at all are now brought within the definition of literature, because they are written in the form of fiction. The divergence is so wide as to defy definition or classification, and yet it may be said that Scott's novels were a continuation of the poetic romances in prose. They were combinations of the novel and the romance, and gave a very distinct character to this form of literary work. Dickens followed with the romance of humble life, and Thackeray with a realistic picture of all the grades of life and society in the England of his day. George Eliot's is rather the psychological novel, giving great attention to the mental and spiritual influences which are brought to bear through heredity and environment.

With the coming of Balzac and the Russian novelists, Tourgenieff and Tolstoi, who found defenders in the school of Howells and Henry James, direct issue has been taken between the friends of the realistic and the romantic novel. This is an endless controversy, and largely a matter of definition. On one hand it is claimed that the realistic novel ignores the spiritual side of man's life, while on the other hand the romantic novel may be too highly idealized and fail of sufficient truthfulness to the actual details of life. It would seem at present, however, as though the idealists had the better of the controversy, although the promising schools of young writers following this faith cannot be mentioned in a paper of this kind. Indeed, the field is too wide to permit even of a bare enumeration of promising names. One cannot, however, be too grateful for the influence of such men as Tolstoi and Thackeray, in leading us away from the wildly unreal character of the early romance. Their work has the startling

reality of life, and is oftentimes more real than anything which we have experienced in our own lives, although we know that it is life and life only which they are portraying.

The cause for the astonishing popularity of the novel is not far to seek. It grows out of the widening interest of all mankind in social questions. We no longer find interest in the unreal characters of early fiction, because we feel an interest in the common cause of mankind at large. Every well-defined picture of human life brings us into a better defined sympathy with the well-being of mankind. The revelation of the peculiarities of modern national life, which we have found in the modern novel, has broadened and deepened the sympathies of all men. The books of Tolstoi enable us, for the first time, to understand Russian higher life, while Tourgenieff enables us to see how it is that men can live under such a monarchy as that of Russia. As much as we may object to some of the modern French novels, we cannot deny that they have unsparingly revealed some of the peculiarities of French society, which, upon the whole, had better be revealed. The motto of the modern newspaper, "Publicity, publicity," is perhaps a vigorous statement of a powerful moral force. Vice should not be flaunted in the face of all ranks of society; and yet, there is no better way to cure certain tendencies than to describe them unsparingly and expose them to public execration. Whatever may be the divergent views of moralists with regard to the influence of the novel, it cannot well be denied that the modern novel has already solved many social questions, and that it is on the direct road to the solution of many more. The great novelists are nearly always in earnest; there are very few of them who are triflers. It would be impossible to overestimate the influence which some of them have exerted upon their day, even outside the limits of their own country. This was notably true of Dickens and Thackeray. It is still more apparent in the case of Mrs. Stowe and Tolstoi.

Although the romantic poetry seemed almost unconsciously to have changed into the prose romance, it by no means follows that the poetic movement had exhausted itself. The Romance movement was a return to nature, and its doctrines were too sound and wholesome to go out of existence with the passing age. Wordsworth lived to see the triumph of the principles for which he had contended, and to enjoy the recognition of that triumph from his contemporaries. His principles were not altogether accepted, but in the main they have become embodied in the practice of all later poets. While his successors are no longer distinctly romantic poets, it is not because they have dropped the principles of romanticism; it is rather because the complex psychological thought of our day has given them problems that are deeper and truer. Tennyson and Browning are everywhere occupied with the same serious studies of the spiritual side of man's nature. It may be under the guise of the Knights of the Round Table and a return to the days of chivalry, as in the Idylls of the King; but we soon discover that these characters are really citizens of the nineteenth century, and are working out the problems which we are now solving, rather than those which occupied the minds of men in the days of Arthur. Nearly all Tennyson's studies are distinctly those of our own day, as the question of co-education and many social questions which now characterize the contest between the masses and the classes. No study could be more suggestive than an examination of Tennyson's relation to his time, the debt which he owed to environment, the influence which his times exerted upon him, and which he, owing to his long life and his great personality, was finally enabled to exert upon his generation. In this respect, Tennyson occupies a unique position. The position to which he attained as laureate, together with his own noble and beautiful character, has given to him a point of vantage which seldom before has been given to anyone. The great background of the church and state of

England, with its social institutions, has added a powerful tone to the picture. His extremely long life gave him an influence at the last which is not easily described. It is not so wonderful that no effort has been made to appoint a successor to the laureateship.

Browning, on the other hand, while entirely different from Tennyson as to his position in the eye of the world, has, if possible, exerted a greater influence upon his day. The debt which is owed to him by the moral and social forces of the world can never be paid. His cheerful confidence in man and in the future has done more to sustain and encourage the friends of the social order than any other one influence. It is pleasing to remember that the influence of Mrs. Browning was in the same direction, and that it may be a difficult problem to decide which of these owed the more to the hopefulness of the other.

While speaking of this phase of our recent great literature, it is interesting to observe that America has furnished the chief allies of Browning and Tennyson in creating this atmosphere of hopefulness. Either because of the more hopeful conditions of American life, or the greater sanity of our prevailing thought, we are certainly a more hopeful people. The mission of Emerson, Longfellow, Lowell, and Whittier has largely hinged upon social progress. Their deep sympathy with the wants of mankind, and their confidence in the future of mankind, has given them a marked character in the opinion of European critics. The prevailing characteristic of the best European opinion, whether it be that of Carlyle or Ruskin or Matthew Arnold, has been its tinge of sadness, its suggestion of hopelessness. Carlyle may be said to have died almost in despair for the future of the race, and many French and German critics are more hopeless than he. In contrast with this atmosphere of discouragement, it is comforting to remember the spirit of Emerson and of Longfellow, Browning and

Tennyson. They might all be characterized as the helpers and inspirers of those who live in the spirit.

The English literature of the last half of our century derives one of its chief interests from the play of this relationship between the two continents. Both Carlyle and Browning received their first recognition from America, and have undoubtedly maintained their largest audience on this side the Atlantic. The same thing was true in the early days of the Romance movement, and our whole New England school of poets may be said to be the result of our quick recognition of the principles of romanticism. The honors seem now to be evenly balanced between the two sides of the water. With the death of the old generation an interesting question might be offered as to which side of the Atlantic presents the greater amount of surviving talent. Such a question could not have been suggested before the present generation, owing to the newness of our literary development in America.

The growth of American literature is clearly marked by three great steps in time and place. First, is Benjamin Franklin, in the days of the French Revolution. He occupies a singular position in American literature. Living in Philadelphia, which was then the chief city of America, he exerted a powerful influence upon the early affairs of our nation. We have all been surprised to hear Matthew Arnold characterize him as the greatest literary man whom America has ever produced. The second step in our literary development is found in New York, gathered around the personality of Washington Irving, and perpetuated through the names of Bryant, Bayard Taylor, and Mrs. Stowe, besides the multitude who might be named in the same connection. The third step, twenty years later in time, leads us to Boston, where Emerson and Hawthorne form the center, with Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Holmes, closely associated. These three steps admit of classification on account of their relation to our early

literary life. Since their day, the influences are too complex to admit of further grouping. The names are too many to be enumerated, and the number of such names which still represent living men and women would forbid any estimate of their relative merits.

The same may be said of the latest school in England. Following Tennyson and Browning are Swinburne, William Morris, and Dante Gabriel Rossetti, while George Meredith and Thomas Hardy may safely be mentioned as succeeding to the great novelists. Beyond these names, it would be invidious to classify or arrange the large number of promising men who represent the English literature of the present, and are no doubt to be far better known in the literary future.

A review of our literature ought not to conclude without reference to the great prose writers of the past generation, whose work has been as strictly literature as any work of their day. It would be hard to estimate the influence of such a man as Carlyle upon his generation. His love of sincerity and of truth, his hatred of shams, his friendship for the common people, all these have been voiced in writings that are strictly literature. Like Emerson, his sympathies were world-wide, recognizing excellence wherever it was found. His influence in acclimating the German literature in England would alone entitle him to high respect. The kinship between Carlyle and Emerson was one of the abiding influences of their day, knitting the two continents by many and beautiful ties.

Ruskin's mission has been equally pronounced in the direction of social science, while vastly stronger in the direction of art and the influence of pure literature. Nothing can exceed the educational force of such a noble body of literature as is found in Ruskin's prose. He may be said to have found his nation without art instincts or traditions, and to have left it almost on a par with the continental nations. Indeed, with other similar forces, he has exerted the same influence upon us.

If our progress has been more rapid in artistic directions, it is because of the greater variety of our national life, and the larger and richer nature in the midst of which we are placed.

The same considerations apply to Matthew Arnold, who has done for literary criticism what Ruskin did for art. Whatever may be thought of some of Arnold's opinions, it cannot be denied that his steady, lifelong protest against the Philistinism of England and America has resulted in infinite good. He likewise accomplished for our romance literature what the German romanticists accomplished for Shakespeare. He has revealed to us our own, and has probably done more to give the English speaking race a proper appreciation of Wordsworth and Milton than all that had been done before his day. On our side the water, we owe a similar debt to Emerson, Lowell, Whipple, Stedman, and John Fiske, whose prose writings are not only literature, but one of the most valuable forms which literature has ever assumed.

The study of literature is too often unsuccessful; the effort is not well directed; the work is so scattered as to accomplish nothing; the best of intentions result in little satisfaction and no progress. In order to succeed, it is necessary to begin with one author as a center. He must be a great author, and worthy of study. Using him as a center, a great deal of definite progress may be attained; but in order to this, he must be mastered. A library may be collected, of books bearing upon this one man. His writings, his life, his times, his influence, these are the questions which are most necessary. As we become acquainted with him, he will gradually bring us to an acquaintance with every one else; but the work will be organized, all our studies related, and definite progress can be discerned on every hand. Lowell says that his mind was formed in this way, around the study of Dante; the same thing was true of Longfellow; the same thing has been true in greater or less degree of nearly every writer. We know that Browning

gave great attention to Shelley, and that Tennyson was largely formed on certain models. Literary study is only of value as it is concentrated upon certain fields. We are all fractional men in this day of the world; the day of the all-around man has gone by. Literature is so diverse and so extensive that one person cannot be an authority on many subjects. The literature which has grown up around Dante or Shakespeare or Goethe would, in either case, be inexhaustible within the range of an ordinary lifetime. But long before either of these fields has been exhausted, we should have a definite acquaintance with at least one of the three or four greatest exhibitions of literary force and talent that the world has to offer. The same thing will be true in a lesser degree of Milton or Wordsworth or Tennyson or Browning. Each of these men represents in himself a mighty literature. Although Tennyson and Browning have been dead but a short time, the world already contains a vast library which has grown up around their works. They are nearer to us, and the problems they discuss more valuable to us than those of the remoter poets. No one could make a mistake in choosing any one of these names as a center for literary study upon which he might soon become an authority, and from which he might advance to the study of all related literature. This is really the only way to make any progress in the great mass of writing that is known to us to-day under the name of literature.

WOMAN IN LITERATURE.

CONTRIBUTES TO THE LIBRARIES OF THE WORLD.

"Authors of delight
And happiness, which to the end of time
Will live, and spread, and kindle."

LEARNING the source, or cause, or reason of anything is a process the benefit of which is not limited by the subject immediately under consideration. It is an important part of true education to trace the relation of cause and effect, and to search out the sources, the beginnings of things,—a process at once delightful, fascinating, and profitable, of which the chief reason is the close and intimate relation that exists between all facts, all thoughts, and things.

It is a very obvious fact that woman has attempted and reached a prominent position in the world, has wrought for herself and most successfully, until, at the present time, there is no field of labor, no avenue of trade, no kind of business, no profession, no place in literature, art, or science, once open only to man, from which she is now excluded. A very obvious fact, but not a trite one, nor, do we believe, is the consideration of it trifling.

We say woman has been *successful* in attaining this position in the world now so readily accorded her, and a question of no little importance arises at the very outset: What constitutes success in life? The successful person is held up to an admiring world as the pattern for all the rest. There is a general assumption that a faculty for acquiring wealth is the meaning

of success; and a common observation of ordinary life agrees with the assumption. One who has failed in acquiring money is unsuccessful—a failure. But such a conclusion is unfair; for a person, though poor, may still be successful as regards something which is not money. He is successful if he attain the object of his best efforts, no matter what that object may be. To be truly successful, what is gained must be worth the gaining,—must make the successful one really better by its acquisition, and increase the capability for its enjoyment. Is this true of woman? Is woman, individually and collectively, the gainer by the success attained? Are her capabilities increased, her enjoyments of life heightened, by the position she has acquired? As these pages are perused we trust the answer to these questions will be evident.

So many brilliant authors are to be found in feminine ranks, it is but natural to turn our survey first of all to the field of literature. There is hardly a branch of English literature which woman does not occupy. She is equally at home in history, biography, poetry, and fiction; and equally versatile and comprehensive in her presentation of a subject, meeting deep and intricate questions with a tact and treatment which is at once both delicate and faithful; with a logic and keenness not often surpassed by the stronger sex.

Of the various departments of literature, by far the largest number of women are to be found in that of fiction, and a long list of names of American and European women could be given who have won a high position in the ranks of novelists.

Some years ago, a popular periodical, *Once a Week*, entered into a sort of contest, by which the opinion of the great reading public was gained as to the most popular women novelists. By a large majority of votes, George Eliot was declared to lead the list. If we fix our estimate of success on pathos, humor, thought, portraiture, or mastery of language, what woman has touched so high a point in literature?

Born in the rather prosaic county of Warwickshire, November 22, 1819, in the hamlet of Chilvers Coton, "a green oasis dropped in between the looms and factories of Nuneaton, and the coal-pits of Bedworth," she learned early to love it and the surrounding country. It is no cause for wonderment that in after years the memory of that sweet country life surged up amid the feverish work of the great world, and that she reverted to those scenes of her childhood with a freshness and tenderness which give a peculiar charm to the descriptive touches in her later works.

Her father, Robert Evans, was, in turn, carpenter, land surveyor, and steward of estates. Her Christian name was Mary Anne, but in familiar conversation and correspondence this soon became Marian. When she was about fifteen years old her mother died, and, after the marriage of the older children of the family, she presided over her father's house; driving with him during the day, entertaining him with readings from Scott in the evenings. Her education, always pursued with unflagging industry, included a knowledge of Greek, Latin, French, German, Italian, and Hebrew; the knowledge of this last gained by herself unaided. In Coventry, which after 1841 was her home until she went abroad, she took lessons in music, and became an exquisite pianist. Here, too, began those literary friendships, for which she had hitherto so vainly longed. She found herself here in an atmosphere of culture and liberal thought; for here were accustomed to gather Emerson, George Coombe, Harriet Martineau, Robert Mackay, Thackeray, Herbert Spencer, Anthony Froude, and many more, who all "listened with marked attention when one gentle woman's voice was heard to utter what they were quite sure was well matured before her lips were opened."

After her father's death, in 1849, she went abroad. On her return she visited London, met the editor of the *Westminster Review*, and there as his assistant began her memorable career

is a writer. Meanwhile she had become a dissenter,—even a free thinker,—had read liberalist books, been introduced to men of thought, transcendentalists, positivists, and versatile speculators, among whom was Lewes; to whom, without the social sanction, she became a devoted helpmate. His death occurred in 1878, and in 1880 she married John Walter Cross, a former acquaintance. Only a few months of companionship were their, spent mostly in traveling on the continent. She contracted a severe cold, sank rapidly, and on the twenty-second of December, 1880, passed calmly and painlessly away.

The first revelations of character are the strongest. Childhood traits reveal the happiness or misery of a future life. In Marian Evans's character, the first revelations are of affection and ambition; either, if strong enough to become a passion, will surely drive its possessor along a thorny path, until it is mastered, and, where both exist in the same nature, there must be continual struggle between them, and that of the keenest kind. Such was apparent early in the life of George Eliot. She herself tells how, when only four years of age, she played on the piano, of which she had no knowledge, in order to impress the servant with a proper notion of her acquirements. She was equally as eager for love as for recognition. Very vividly she portrays her earliest passion—her love for her brother. "She used always to be at his heels, doing everything he did." Impressible, eager for work, and ambitious for knowledge, she began life under strong emotional pressure, which caused her great distress lest her loved ones should fail her, and brought her devotion to them into collision with her desire for knowledge.

In the years that followed her father's death, during a few months abroad, and while in London, she was morbid and despondent; fearful that old friends would die, and she have no power to make new ones. This condition gradually changed and grew into a healthful happiness; reasons for which may

be found in the fact that she taught her strong, affectional nature the duty of loving her neighbors; and she learned the lesson so few women know, to enjoy things on their own account. The first article in this creed became George Eliot's religion. The Christian religion she had abandoned at twenty-one, because she could not believe fully, and would not conform to what she did not believe. But this did not destroy the religious sense in her life. Her nature became more serious, and she seems never to have forgotten what she had abandoned, and, though differing radically from her friends on religious questions, she was never intolerant or uncharitable.

She loved things for themselves. She took the true, high view of life, which declares that from every good all possible enjoyment should be gained.

But her deep love for mankind, her enjoyment of the good and beautiful, could never have completed her life. These satisfied affection; but there was another prominent quality in her nature—ambition. "Ambition," which at twenty she wrote, "is my besetting sin, and is the one, of all, most destroying." Whatever she did was done with all her might. When housekeeper, this kept her in constant worry, but she would have things right, whether it be currant jelly or a German translation. This same perfection marked her novels.

Ambitious to excel in that special work to which she was continually looking, and which she did not understand, she wrote many reviews and essays, which acted as a sort of intellectual safety-valve, but it was not until September, 1856, that the new era in her life opened, when she began to write fiction. Stories to kill time, but useless for serious reading, were not according to George Eliot's idea of fiction. She could not be content with simple story telling, but aimed at studies of life. She writes to Mr. John Blackwood, who became her publisher: "My artistic bent is directed not all to the presentation of irreproachable characters, but to the presentation of mixed

human beings, in such a way as to call forth tolerant judgment, pity, and sympathy. And I cannot step aside from what I *feel* to be *true* in character." And again: "I should like to touch every heart among my readers with nothing but loving humor, with tenderness, with belief in goodness."

The story of her success is familiar—her books are well known. In rapid succession she sent out "Scenes of Clerical Life," "Adam Bede," "Mill on the Floss," "Silas Marner," "Romola," "Felix Holt," "Middlemarch," "Daniel Deronda," and "Theophrastus Such." She wrote and lived her story, and, when once urged to re-write a book, replied she could no more do it than she could live over a year of her life. Her works are the embodiment of what she had felt, written that they might strengthen others. Conscientious concerning her work to a painful degree, often despondent through fear of failure, fear lest she had misinterpreted a character, she worked on because she believed she had found her place, and to do her best for mankind was her religion.

Ambition manifested itself also in the rigid self-culture which she pursued through her life. Reading, study, conversation. observation, writing, travel, were in turn employed in her course of self-discipline. She read constantly and thoroughly. Here is a list of books, the work of one month, and that when she was nearly fifty: "Lucretius," first book; sixth book of the "Iliad"; "Samson Agonistes"; Warton's "History of English Poetry"; "Grote," second volume; "Vita Nuova," volume fourth; Guest on "English Rhythm"; Maurice's "Lectures on Casuistry." Few months fell below this in reading, and this, too, while she was writing, seeing people, and conversing.

As a life of earnest purpose, of constant struggle for high living. of deep desire to make the most of everything, and for everybody. there is none more marked than that of George Eliot. Non-conformity to the religion and the law in which we believe,

must sadden her life for all ; but an honest student of her character must and will accord to her, what she herself never failed to give to the erring—charity.

But with ambition and love for mankind as prominent characteristics, the results of a life-work are not always similar to those of Marian Evans. That love for humanity is a powerful factor in the success of any worker in the literary world is most decidedly proved by the work of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.

The antecedents of a woman, who, at the age of forty, took up her pen to write what proved to be the greatest book of the century, are naturally interesting. Mrs. Stowe's mind was formed in a good school. Her father, Lyman Beecher, a blacksmith, until his strong convictions carried him into the pulpit, was one of the sturdiest, grandest men of New England production. While he was pastor of the church in Litchfield, Connecticut, Harriet was born, on June 14, 1812. He afterward was called to Boston, as pastor of Hanover Street Presbyterian Church, remaining there until 1832. In that year he moved to Cincinnati, to assume charge of the Lane Theological Seminary, and remained at the head of that institution for eighteen years, until 1850. Those eighteen years are important in the life of Harriet Beecher.

The death of the mother when Harriet was only four years of age caused her home for some time to be with an aunt. The letters of Mrs. Stowe descriptive of that time—the dear grandma, the energetic aunt, the kind Uncle George, full of poetry, Burns's and Scott's being at his tongue's end ; the house full of family relics and curiosities ; the library, a portfolio of fine engravings, —are very pleasant reading and made, we are certain, "the little farmhouse under the hill a paradise, and the sight of its chimneys after a day's ride was like a vision of Eden."

She very early manifested an eagerness for books, but there was no light literature in her father's library. She reveled in a copy of "Arabian Nights," and read eagerly a dissertation on

Solomon's Song, which she found among her father's sermons, because it told about the same sort of things she had read of in "Arabian Nights"; and "Don Quixote," she says, "seemed like an enchanted island rising out of an ocean of mud." And when Dr. Beecher said, "You may read Scott's novels," she and her brother George improved the privilege, and in one summer they "went through Ivanhoe" seven times, and could recite several scenes from beginning to end. The society of Litchfield was composed of cultured and scholarly people, and it was richly endowed with schools, scientific and professional. Harriet was a pupil in the school of Miss Price, a school of high reputation; when but nine years old, under this teacher's inspiration, she volunteered to write a composition every week. Many an older person would be daunted by her first theme, "The difference between the Natural and Moral Sublime," but she was sure that she had some clear distinctions in mind, and finished her first composition on that subject. Two years later, at the annual exhibition, she took the negative side of the question, "Can the Immortality of the Soul be Proved by the Light of Nature?"

So the conditions and surroundings of the early life of Mrs. Stowe, the domestic and social relations which were hers, and in which her own found root, reveal where and how the solid foundations of her future fame were laid, and the powerful influences that quickened her intellectual powers and molded her character.

She went to school in Hartford, and was afterward associated in the same school as teacher. In 1832, in company with her sister Catherine, she went to their father's home in Cincinnati, where Harriet gave herself to larger educational enterprises. At about the time of her marriage to Professor Calvin E. Stowe, which occurred January 5, 1836, she became connected with a society called the "Semicolon Club," which was maintained by the literary men and women of the city. Among

these were Judge Hall, Professor Hentz and his wife Caroline Lee Hentz, herself a novelist of popularity; the humorist, E. P. Cranch; Samuel Eliot, the New England historian; the Misses Blackwell, two of whom afterward gained distinction as physicians; and Professor O. M. Mitchel, the accomplished scientific gentleman who afterwards, as major general, gave his life for his country.

In this brilliant circle her genius was recognized, sympathy given, and an impulse received which found a way for her out of the circle of private fellowship into the world beyond. Before this society she first read some of those sketches which afterwards found a place in *The Mayflower*, published in 1849. For several years, her life flowed on in simple channels, which, though uneventful, were years of discipline and preparation.

She had always felt a great interest in the slaves and was perfectly familiar with the different aspects of plantation life. Her home was at the point where the anti-slavery conflict raged most fiercely; but amid all the excitement and tumult the voice of Mrs. Stowe was not heard; she manifested no unusual intensity of feeling—but she was a close observer, and all unconsciously the materials for her great work were accumulating.

The seminary became involved in the great discussion of the slavery question, taking the humane side of it, until public opinion demanded that its voice should be silenced. Professor Stowe accepted a position in Bowdoin College, Maine, and with his wife, took up his residence at Brunswick. Just then the Fugitive Slave Law was passed, and, indignant at this piece of legislation, Mrs. Stowe felt inaction was no longer possible, and the conviction that the system of slavery must be shown up as it really was, became all-controlling and was the foundation for "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

It was not a product of leisure hours, for

"She wrought with a sad sincerity,"

when having in charge a large family, and while suffering from delicate health. Much of the book was written by the kitchen fire, as she sat with her portfolio upon her knee.

The great success of the work when published as a serial in the *National Era*, and afterwards in book form, is familiar to all. No work of fiction in the English language was ever so widely sold. Before the end of 1852 the book was published in ten different languages.

Search for the cause of the great success of this work will discover that it was written to meet a popular necessity, to serve the cause of truth and humanity, and was written "with the heart almost *broken* in view of the sufferings it describes!" She had shed many tears over the unwritten wrongs of the slave, but she has lived to see a world weeping over her touching story of these wrongs, and, what is better, has lived to see those wrongs redressed. Pleasant reading as are her other works—"Dred," "The Minister's Wooing," "The Pearl of Orr's Island," etc.—none of them will ever attain the place awarded to "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and upon the writing of that story rests the fame of Harriet Beecher Stowe.

Another woman there is whose fame rests very largely upon one of her writings. We refer to Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson; and the work which has made her name widely known is "Ramona," a work which caused one prominent critic to say of the author, "She is a Murillo in literature"; and of the story, "It is one of the most artistic creations of American literature." It is almost as distinguished a work as "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and has a style of exquisite finish, as have indeed all of this gifted author's productions. Indian life in Southern California and Mexico are finely dealt with, and the story is of historical interest. The wrongs so cruelly inflicted on the hero of the tale, and the Christian spirit with which he endured them, rouse a sense of shame that, under American laws, unprincipled men could commit such deeds with impunity.

Her style was fresh, vigorous, and often brilliant; her poetry contemplative, subtle, and original. After reading from her "Bits of Travel," published in 1872, or "Bits of Travel at Home," in Colorado, California, and New England, in which occur such delightful invigorating descriptions, one lays down the book with much the same feeling of satisfaction as is experienced when just returned from a day's exquisite enjoyment of beautiful scenery.

Helen Maria Fiske was born in Amherst, Massachusetts, October 18, 1831. She was a daughter of Professor Nathan Fiske, and a girl of uncommon vivacity and versatility. "The Naughtiest Day of my Life" (*St. Nicholas*, September and October, 1880) is a description of herself, in company with another girl, running away from home, on which occasion the two walked to Hadley, four miles, before they were brought back. Her mother says of that anxious day: "Helen walked in at a quarter before ten o'clock at night, rosy and smiling, and saying in her brightest tone, 'Oh, mother, I've had a perfectly splendid time!'

At twenty-one she was married to Captain Edward B. Hunt, U. S. A., a man who held high army rank as an engineer officer, and who possessed considerable scientific attainments. Their first child, Murray, died in 1854, when only eleven months old. Major Hunt was killed in 1863, while experimenting with a submarine battery of his own invention. Their second child, Warren, died suddenly, of diphtheria, in 1865. Mrs. Hunt was thus left utterly bereaved.

While her life, hitherto, had always been active and social, she had shown no signs of a literary vocation. It was not until she went, in 1866, to reside in Newport that, through contact with people whose pursuits were literary, a fresh interest and new employment opened most unexpectedly before her.

When in her teens she had written a few verses; and the few poems of her maturer years, previous to 1866, related to her personal bereavements. The change of abode developed

terests and stimulated her song to a trial of new and aried notes.

signature "H. H." appeared in connection with the em she wrote after her removal to Newport. It was 'Tryst," and was published in *The Nation*. Her first t in prose appeared in the *Independent*, in 1866, and was l "In the White Mountains." She remained a contributor paper until her death, writing, in all, three hundred and -one articles. Once launched into literature, she worked eat enthusiasm ; she composed rapidly, yet was always o correct, revise, and criticise. Her first contribution to *antic* was her poem "Coronation." She had set a certain pon it which was rather high for a newcomer to demand. lds read it and said, "It's a good poem" ; after a second , he exclaimed, "It is a *very* good poem," and accepted appeared in 1869, and "The Way to Sing," in 1870. ced that her health needed a thorough change of climate, ed a winter in Colorado, which state soon became her as she was married in October, 1875, to Mr. William S. n of Colorado Springs.

e a new intellectual experience was hers, and a moral iasm took possession of her, so that she writes to a friend ry, 1880) :—

ave become what I have said a thousand times was the lious thing in life, 'a woman with a hobby.' But I can-p it. I think I feel as did you in the old abolition days. ot think of anything else from morning to night, and ight to morning. In some respects, it seems to me, the is really worse off than the slaves ;" and she announces ention of going to work for three months in the Astor y on her "Century of Dishonor."

observations during her travels in Colorado had roused nterest in the Indians, which was brought to a crisis , when she heard the Indians "Standing Bear" and

"Bright-Eyes" lecture in Boston on the wrongs of the Poncas, and afterwards met them in New York, at the house of her friend Mrs. Botta.

Henceforth she subordinated literature to a single aim—a portion of her literature had always as essentially a moral motive as had Ramona. Other reforms than the Indian question had set her thinking,—the slavery question, woman suffrage, temperance; but if they had *touched* a little, they had never *controlled* her. When this interest in the Poncas arose, then she became in earnest: studied facts, corresponded with statesmen, and finally sent out her "Century of Dishonor," in 1881; "Ramona," first published in the *Christian Union* in 1884, appearing there because it had been written, as it were, at a white heat and she could not wait for the longer delays of a magazine. It was issued in book form that same year, and completes the list of her works. Both books are in earnest defense of the Indians and are full of indignation at their unrighteous treatment.

During the months of her last illness in San Francisco her sunny elasticity never failed; bright, cheerful, and hopeful to the last, expressing only cheering words for the future, whether she should live or die, she passed away quietly but unconsciously, on the afternoon of Aug. 12, 1885. Her prose writings have an even excellence which is surpassed by hardly any American writer. They are always clear, strong, accurate, and forcible. The poetry of Mrs. Jackson unquestionably takes rank above that of any other American woman, and in the opinion of many above that of any English woman but Mrs. Browning. Emerson rated it above that of almost all American men; his favorite was her sonnet entitled "Thought." The fact that she could write, when finally face to face with death, such poems as "Habeas Corpus," "Acquainted with Grief," and "A Last Prayer," adds a "new dignity to the falling away of the flesh and a new nobleness to human nature."

"HABEAS CORPUS.

"My body, eh? Friend Death, how now?
Why all this tedious pomp of writ?
Thou hast reclaimed it sure and slow
For half a century, bit by bit.

"In faith thou knowest more to-day
Than I do where it can be found!
This shriveled lump of suffering clay,
To which I now am chained and bound,

"Has not of kith or kin a trace
To the good body once I bore;
Look at this shrunken, ghastly face:
Didst ever see that face before?

"Ah, well, friend Death, good friend thou art;
Thy only fault thy lagging gait,
Mistaken pity in thy heart
For timorous ones that bid thee wait.

"Do quickly all thou hast to do,
Nor I nor mine will hindrance make;
I shall be free when thou art through;
I grudge thee naught that thou must take!

"Stay! I have lied; I grudge thee one,
Yes, two I grudge thee at this last,—
Two members which have faithful done
My will and bidding in the past.

"I grudge thee this right hand of mine;
I grudge thee this quick-beating heart;
They never gave me coward sign,
Nor played me once a traitor's part.

"I see now why in olden days
Men in barbaric love or hate
Nailed enemies' hands at wild crossways,
Shrined leaders' hearts in costly state:

"The symbol, sign, and instrument
Of each soul's purpose, passion, strife,
Of fires in which are poured and spent
Their all of love, their all of life.

"O feeble, mighty human hand!
O fragile, dauntless human heart!
The universe holds nothing planned
With such sublime, transcendent art!

"Yes, Death, I own I grudge thee mine
Poor little hand, so feeble now;
Its wrinkled palm, its altered line,
Its veins so pallid and so slow.

. . . (Unfinished here.)

"Ah, well, friend Death, good friend thou art;
I shall be free when thou art through.
Take all there is—take hand and heart;
There must be somewhere work to do."

"*August 7th.*"

"A LAST PRAYER.

"Father, I scarcely dare to pray,
So clear I see, now it is done,
That I have wasted half my day,
And left my work but just begun;

"So clear I see that things I thought
Were right or harmless were a sin;
So clear I see that I have sought,
Unconscious, selfish aims to win;

"So clear I see that I have hurt
The souls I might have helped to save;
That I have slothful been, inert,
Deaf to the calls thy leaders gave.

"In outskirts of thy kingdoms vast,
Father, the humblest spot give me;
Set me the lowliest task thou hast;
Let me repentant work for thee!"

"*August 8th.*"

Since the civil war, the development of the novel has been most rapid, and the best American writers of the present day find their most congenial task in the field of fiction. In its advance the novel has aimed at the interpretation of different phases of life everywhere, and under all conditions, and has found its subjects in all parts of the world.

Many women, both American and English, have attained a phenomenal prominence in literature at the present time, and many of them stand in the front rank as writers of ability.

The pioneers of the literary women of to-day met with difficulties almost insurmountable, as a study of the life and works of Harriet Martineau, the foremost literary English woman in the last century, will show, as well as of Hannah Adams and Catharine Sedgwick of our own country. The former wrote a history of New England, and the latter novels of an exceedingly mild and tedious type; while Harriet Martineau was the first woman to write upon political topics. In her day, the attempt was almost audacious—certainly most unique.

It would be a difficult task to mention all the women who have attained eminence as authors since these wrote, for they and their productions are numerous. Charlotte Bronté, one of the earlier authors, and one of distinction, wrote amid most sorrowful experiences. The early death of her mother; the loss of two sisters while they were at school; unpleasant experiences as governess in one or two families a little later in life; the failing sight of her father and finally his death; the death of her only brother, and the last sister, Emily, so dearly loved, present indeed sad surroundings for the gifted young authoress. But

her energy never flagged; after "Jane Eyre" came "Shirley," and three years later "Villette." In the spring of 1854, Miss Bronté was married to Rev. A. Nicholls, who had long loved her, and a little bright sunshine was permitted at the close of a hitherto clouded life. But it was brief; a serious illness set in, and on the 31st of March, 1855, she died.

Margaret Oliphant, another distinguished novelist, was born in 1820. The impression was at one time quite prevalent that she is a Scotchwoman; probably because of the fine manner with which she has treated Scotch character and incident. She is a native of Liverpool: her mother was, however, a Scotchwoman of remarkable type, strongly attached to old traditions. *Blackwood's Magazine* has been the medium through which her works have been given to the world, and, though of various merit, all have the same distinctive characteristic — that of delineating Scottish life with tender humor and keen insight.

Many favorites send out their works over fictitious names; a very common practice being to adopt a masculine *nom de plume*. One of these, an English writer, is "John Strange Winter," Mrs. Arthur Stannard, who was made famous by her universally read "Bootle's Baby." The book attained at once such a great popularity that it is difficult to realize that it was declined six times by London editors before it was accepted by the *Graphic*, and published in weekly parts. Mrs. Stannard is the daughter of a clergyman, and one wonders where she derived her peculiar military proclivities.

Her father was in the army before he entered the church and was always greatly attached to his first calling; from him she learned to observe and criticise army society with the keenness and accuracy displayed in all her stories. Recently Mrs. Stannard has gone into journalism and is the editor of *Winter's Weekly*.

While English women were winning fame as depictors of English life, in our own country, in the state of Tennessee, a

young girl, whose home was on the blood-stained field of Murfreesboro, was beginning a work that has secured her own fame and rescued a people from oblivion. Edward Eggleston has said that "we shall never have a genuine American literature so long as we shrink from the life of the common people."

Whether it is through conscious recognition of this fact or not, "Charles Egbert Craddock" has won a place in the world of letters which is ample verification of the utterance. For a number of years she was a favorite magazine contributor—her stories always fresh, striking, and original. When her literary position was well established, she went to Boston to make the acquaintance of her publisher, who was astonished to find that his contributor was a woman—Miss Mary N. Murfree. No one had suspected the vigorous writing to come from other than a masculine mind.

Another author of clever novels is Mrs. Alexander—Mrs. Alexander Hector. In her uncertainty as to success when she began writing, she preferred not to make use of her surname, and by the advice of her publishers has continued to write under the name by which she had made herself known. Mrs. Hector is an Irishwoman who married a Scotchman, and has lived in England, France, and Germany, in order to educate her children, and her novels show excellent results of this cosmopolitan experience. She is nearly seventy years of age, is a tall, stately, handsome woman; fond of her home, her children, and grandchildren. Of her three talented daughters, one is a literary critic, one an artist, and the third an author, destined, her mother says, to do more than she has done—"there is more in her." Perhaps of the many pleasant works from this author's pen, none is more delightful or has been more generally read than "The Wooing O't."

Perhaps the most perfect delineator of New England life among our women novelists is Miss Mary E. Wilkins. Her home is in Randolph, not far from Boston, in a handsome house more

than one hundred years old. In a homelike, cozy room, facing east and north, she does her writing. Miss Wilkins has done her work and quietly taken her place at the very head of all writers in her line of work. All critical readers of new books know and admire her stories. "Two Old Lovers" was her first story for grown people, and was published in 1884. Previous to this she had written poems, chiefly for children. "Jane Field," published in 1893, in *Harper's Magazine*, was her first long story, and she has done fine descriptive work in it. The characters are real; not pen portraits, but living beings, one and all. It is more than a study of character; it is a study of conscience and of soul. "Pembroke," since published by her, is another fine characterization of New England life, which in skillful delineation does not fall below her former writings. New England may be proud of so faithful a student of her sons and daughters.

Harriet Prescott Spofford has written many most vivid and original stories. Her reputation was made by an admirable story, "In a Cellar," published in the *Atlantic* in 1859. Her writings show intense feeling and a wonderful mastery of the English language; her descriptions of nature are luxuriant and very profuse.

Frances Hodgson Burnett was born in Manchester, England, in 1849. Her parents came to America in 1865 and settled in Tennessee; and so writing from two standpoints she has most marvelously captivated the readers of two worlds. Many critics think her first novel, "That Lass o' Lowrie's," is still her best. It is a story of the Lancashire mines, and written in the dialect with which the author had been familiar as a child. "Little Lord Fauntleroy" is one of the most popular writings of this author; written for the *St. Nicholas* it has a great charm for older readers as well as for the youth, for which it is more especially designed.

Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney has written many stories for young people—sketches of young womanhood which immediately won

the hearts of her young readers, and, what is better, she has stimulated them to lives of noble action through the high thoughts her words inspired. "Faith Gartney's Girlhood," "A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life," "We Girls," "Hitherto," are some of her works that have that delightful quality of giving pleasure and benefit at the second and third reading.

Particular mention might be made of many other brilliant writers—Margaret Deland, Kate Douglas Wiggin, Sarah Orne Jewett, Rose McEnery Stuart, Amelia E. Barr, Edna Lyall, Olive Thorne Miller, each of whom in the words of Mrs. Whitney, stands apart in "her own preëmpted world of genius. The long line of social writers have unrolled for us, as in woven tapestries, exact with stitch and tint, all that curiously and vividly delights us in the manner and doing of that last old century that seems so remote, down through the rushing hundred years that have plunged us into the tumultuous now."

The popular magazines have been very friendly and helpful to women writers, and through this medium many of them have been introduced to the reading public as *débutantes*, who have become veritable favorites. There is a vast difference between the writings of Catherine Sedgwick and those of the popular authors of to-day, a difference which shows a great development of woman's mind, a development of courage and perseverance which have conquered many obstacles and will conquer any that may arise.

Books by no means represent the industry of women with the pen. A vast amount of work has been done by them in newspaper and periodical essays upon every topic of world-wide discussion, religion, philanthropy, education, history, music, art, science, politics, have been written and given to the public. Perhaps the most representative of such writings of women are to be found in the series of thirty or forty folios arranged under the direction of Mrs. Frederick P. Bellamy, which were exhibited in the Woman's Building at the Colum-

bian Exposition; and as they were the work of New York state women they were given by them to and are now in the possession of the State Library at Albany. Each folio was intrusted to a woman of reputation in the field represented by its contents, and the whole most carefully revised by a woman critic of long experience and ripe judgment. The material was gathered together by winnowing libraries, hunting up forgotten publications, and searching thousands of papers and magazines. These works are not prize essays, nor or they "spurts" in any sense; but they represent the slow, sober, everyday toil of women who support themselves by the pen, or whose ability and impulse lead them to make literature or journalism their best means of expression. The work is dignified, usually able, and often brilliant. It shows the tremendous revolution in public opinion concerning "writing women," since the day, even, of poor Charles Lamb, who thought these unsexed persons not reputable; and it shows, too, how much wiser and better balanced a world we shall inhabit when women in general have learned to think as soberly, and to know as clearly, as the best taught of the other sex. The first volume of this series is entitled "Woman and the Higher Education," and is edited by Miss Anna C. Brackett, whose name stands high in the list of modern pedagogues and to whose contributions are added those from Mrs. L. G. Runkle, Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, Professor Maria Mitchell, Professor Lucy M. Salman. The volume called the "Literature of Philanthropy" numbers among its contributors Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, Miss Agnes Brennan, head of the Bellevue Training School for Nurses; Mrs. Spohr, Miss Moore, Dr. Damon, and Miss McLean, workers in the college settlement; Mrs. Quinton and Mrs. Elaine Goodale Eastman, familiar with the Indian question; and Mrs. Frederick Rhinelander Jones, who writes on the "Education of the Blind." It is edited and has a valuable introduction by Mrs. Francis A. Goodale of Utica. The volume of "Early Prose and Verse,"

edited by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle and Mrs. Emily Ellsworth Ford, has a certain pathos in its remembrance of the forgotten. Mrs. Candace Wheeler, whose artistic reputation is national, is the able editor of the volume representing "Household Art." "The Kindergarten" is admirably edited by that tireless and brilliant apostle of Froebel, Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin, and "Short Stories" has the valuable editorial signature of Mrs. Constance Cary Harrison.

These show a marvelous change in the style of writing since the days when Harriet Martineau and Margaret Fuller wrote their first essays; and cause a query to rise in the mind whether those women of genius and ability could now satisfy the desires of readers for bright, quick, and comprehensive expression of thought; literary essays, however learned and well written, are of the past: yet the works of those women, the pioneers in the literary field, marked an epoch for woman, and their effect and influence has extended to our day.

Woman has added largely to the grace and value of the poetical literature of the day. "To arrange words in couplets so that the accents may fall correctly, that the rhymes may strike the ear strongly, that the lines may flow in unbroken cadence, is an art as mechanical as that of mending a shoe, and may be learned by any dunce who will never blunder on one happy thought or expression." The art of rhyming has been learned by many women, and the expression of "happy thought" they have given us, we feel sure is in no sense the result of a "blunder."

England's greatest poetess, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, whose memory is loved beyond that of almost any poet who has sung, in whose wondrous voice "the cry of the human" is so strong, was born near London in the year 1809. The education she received was far beyond that even of "ladies intellectual." Enthusiastic in her studies of the classics, philosophy, and science, she was equally successful. She began to write for period-

icals at a very early age, and indicated that she was the possessor of a keen poetic insight. She received an injury to the spine, when about fifteen years of age, which compelled her to lie upon her back for many years. Her health was still farther impaired by the rupture of a blood vessel in the lungs; this and the death, by drowning, of a favorite brother, caused her to live in seclusion for a long time. On the restoration of her health, in 1846, she married Robert Browning, himself a great poet. After their marriage, they resided chiefly in Italy, in whose welfare they were passionately interested.

One of her most frequently quoted poems, "The Cry of the Children," was written in 1843. The "Casa Guidi Windows," a poem whose theme was the struggle of the Tuscans for liberty, was published in 1849. "Aurora Leigh," her longest production, appeared in 1856. The distinguishing characteristics of her poems are great depth of feeling, true pathos, and its noble and generous sentiments. Not a thought she has so beautifully expressed could anyone wish expunged. No writer ever exerted a better, gentler, happier influence. She died in Florence, Italy, June 30, 1861, and is buried in the English burying-ground at Florence. The *municipio* have placed over the doorway of Casa Guidi a white tablet, on which is inscribed the following beautiful tribute to her memory :—

"Here wrote and died E. B. Browning, who, in the heart of a woman united the science of a sage and the spirit of a poet, and made with her verse a golden ring binding Italy and England.

"Grateful Florence placed this memorial, 1861."

Of her personal appearance, Hawthorne says: "It is wonderful to see how small she is, how pale her cheeks, how bright and dark her eyes. There is not another such figure in the world, and her black ringlets cluster down into her neck and make her face look whiter."

An earlier English poetess was Felicia Dorothea Hemans, who was born at Liverpool in September, 1794. Mrs. Hemans

was the poet of the affections and of sentiment. Her marriage to Captain Hemans is understood to have been an unhappy one, and some divine strains of sorrow have been given us through her suffering soul. Her lyrics are her best productions, and some of these will live as long as the English language. "The Graves of a Household," "The Treasures of the Deep," "The Homes of England," "The Landing of the Pilgrims," are among this number.

Jean Ingelow, a poetess of original talent, published her first volume, "Poems," in 1863. Among these, "High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," and "Songs of Seven," have been very popular. Her subsequent writings have sustained her reputation as a gifted poet and are characterized by simplicity and naturalness. Then there are Adelaide Procter, Mary Howitt, Christina Rossetti, Dinah Maria Mulock, who are well known to the world through the comfort and strength their songs have imparted.

In the first half of the century, prominent among the writers of poetry in America were Mrs. Lydia Huntley Sigourney and Mrs. Frances Sargent Osgood, whose writings are graceful, if somewhat fanciful, and dominated by the same spirit of sentimentality that the poems of Mrs. Hemans had made fashionable; Anna Lynch Botta, whose charms have been celebrated by Edgar Allan Poe, N. P. Willis, and other writers, whose song was elevating in tone, and deeper and more profound in thought than many writers of her time. Attention has been called recently to the fact that she established what has been called the only successful American salon. Alice and Phœbe Cary belong to the poets of this time. Alice was born on the 26th day of April, 1820, and Phœbe, her sister and life long companion, on September 4, 1824. The place was a house in the Miami valley, eight miles north of Cincinnati, Ohio; a house

"Low and little, and black and old,"

a house which appeared again and again in the verse of both sisters, till their last lines were written. The father, Robert Cary, was a man of superior intelligence, of sound principles, and blameless life; and Alice says of her mother: "My mother was a woman of superior intellect and of good, well-ordered life. In my memory she stands apart from all others, wiser, purer, doing more, and living better than any other woman." This is her portrait of her mother in her "Order for a Picture":—

"A lady, the loveliest ever the sun
Looked down upon, you must paint for me:
Oh, if I could only make you see
The clear blue eyes, the tender smile,
The sovereign sweetness, the gentle grace,
The woman's soul, and the angel's face
That are beaming on me all the while,
I need not speak these foolish words:
Yet one word tells you all I would say,
She is my mother, you will agree
That all the rest may be thrown away."

The hard hand of poverty rested heavily on this family, and no members of it felt it more sorely than did these sisters who, longing for beauty, for books, for education, for knowledge, were shut away from it all; compelled to struggle hard for the right to live free from debt. Little time to study, and no chance at school save in the district schoolhouse, they never went to any other, and very little to that.

But songs seemed to sing themselves into heart and brain, and Alice at seventeen and Phœbe at thirteen began to write them down in uncertain lines. Phœbe's first published poem appeared in a Cincinnati paper, and Alice's first venture in public was made in the *Sentinel* (now *Star of the West*). It was written in her eighteenth year and was entitled "Child of Sorrow." After the establishment of the *National Era* in 1847, she wrote poetry regularly for its columns, and from

Dr. Bailey of this paper received the first money ever earned by her pen—ten dollars, sent as a gratuity, when she had written for him some months. There were not so many singers in those days of 1840–41 as now; and a singer with a pure sweet voice, and of sufficient compass to hold its tones clear and full, would be heard and recognized at once. The names of Alice and Phœbe Cary in the corners of newspapers and magazines and the songs which followed soon fixed the attention and won the affection and admiration of some of the best minds and hearts in the land, and Horace Greeley appreciated, encouraged, and visited them in their own home. Letters of encouragement were also received from John G. Whittier, and when in 1850 they went to meet their Eastern friends, of whom they had seen none save Mr. Greeley, they went first to New York, then to Boston, and from there to Amesbury, and all unknown, save by name, knocked at the door of the poet Whittier. His poem, "The Singer," published soon after the death of Alice, is in commemoration of this visit.

In November, 1850, Alice went to New York, to seek her fortune and make for herself a name and place in that great city. The next April her sister joined her. In 1852, "Clovernook Papers" were published, which were highly praised and eagerly sought after. In prose, "Hagar, a Story of To-day," "Married not Mated," "Pictures of Country Life," are the most prominent of Alice's writings. "The Born Thrall," a novel in which Alice hoped to "embody her deepest thoughts and most mature convictions concerning the wrongs and sorrows of woman," was never finished, being interrupted by her last illness. She died February 12, 1870. Beside writing constantly for the popular periodicals of the day, the active mind of Alice Cary in twenty years produced "eleven volumes, every word and every thought of which was wrought from her own being, and every line of which was written by her own hand."

The disparity in the actual intellectual product of the two

sisters in the same number of years is very marked. It is the result, however, not so much of mental inequality, as of the compelling will, energy, industry, and the patience of labor of the elder sister.

For the last five years of Phœbe's life her genius was almost as productive as that of Alice. Her very best poems, with few exceptions, were written within that period. Through nearly all their lives, Phœbe had in every way depended upon Alice. Over all the long and toilsome road from poverty to competence, it was Phœbe who leaned on Alice; so when Phœbe looked and saw Alice no more, the very impulse and power to live were gone; and she sank and died, at Newport, Rhode Island, July 31, 1871. The words which Whittier wrote for Alice belong alike to each one:—

> "God giveth quietness at last!
> The common way that all have passed
> She went, with mortal yearnings fond,
> To fuller life and love beyond.
>
> "O white soul! from that far off shore
> Float some sweet song the waters o'er;
> Our faith confirm, our fears dispel,
> With the old voice we loved so well!"

During the civil war most of the poets wrote one or two stirring pieces and many new writers came into notice by the publication of occasional verses of merit. Among these, and perhaps first on the list of those contributed by women, is "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, who has achieved immortality through this song of most fervent patriotism. During the war the rude but thrilling threnody of "John Brown's body lies a mouldering in the grave," was heard in every northern camp, and to its stirring melody the regiments kept time as they marched. Mrs. Howe in her majestic "Battle Hymn" furnished the chorus with noble words.

Margaret J. Preston was born in Philadelphia in 1825, and is

now living in Lexington, Virginia. Two of her poems, "Stonewall Jackson's Grave," and "Slain in Battle," have gained considerable popularity.

Lucy Larcom wrote several patriotic poems during the civil war. She was for several years a regular contributor to the *Atlantic Monthly*. She was once an operative in the factories of Lowell, and then it was she wrote the pathetic poem which first brought her to public notice, "Hannah Binding Shoes."

Celia Thaxter spent the greater part of her life at Appledore, upon the Isles of Shoals, where she lived in a pleasant home surrounded by the beauty of nature, and rich in historic lore. One critic says, "She has caught the physiology of the sea, and expressed it in literature better and more thoroughly than any other American poet." "The Sandpiper," "The Wreck of the Pocahontas," "The Watch of Boon Island," are among the best of her shorter poems.

Helen Hunt Jackson, whose life and labors are elsewhere considered, sent out her first volume of poems in 1874. Of these, Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote: "The poems of a lady who contents herself with the initials 'H. H.' have rare merit of thought and expression, and will reward the reader for the careful attention they require."

The number of women poets of high rank is surprisingly large, and half the poems in current periodicals are by women. As a rule they write short poems of mood or description rather than of creation or narration. Edith M. Thomas, whose work is of perfect finish; Ethel Lynn Beers, whose "All Quiet along the Potomac To-night" will long hold her name in remembrance; Louise Chandler Moulton, who writes exquisitely of the sadness that runs through human life; Sallie Bryan Pratt, whose conceits and moods are marked, but in whose poems pathos and sentiment are real; Edna Dean Proctor, and others,—are all aiding in the elevation of the general tone of American literature.

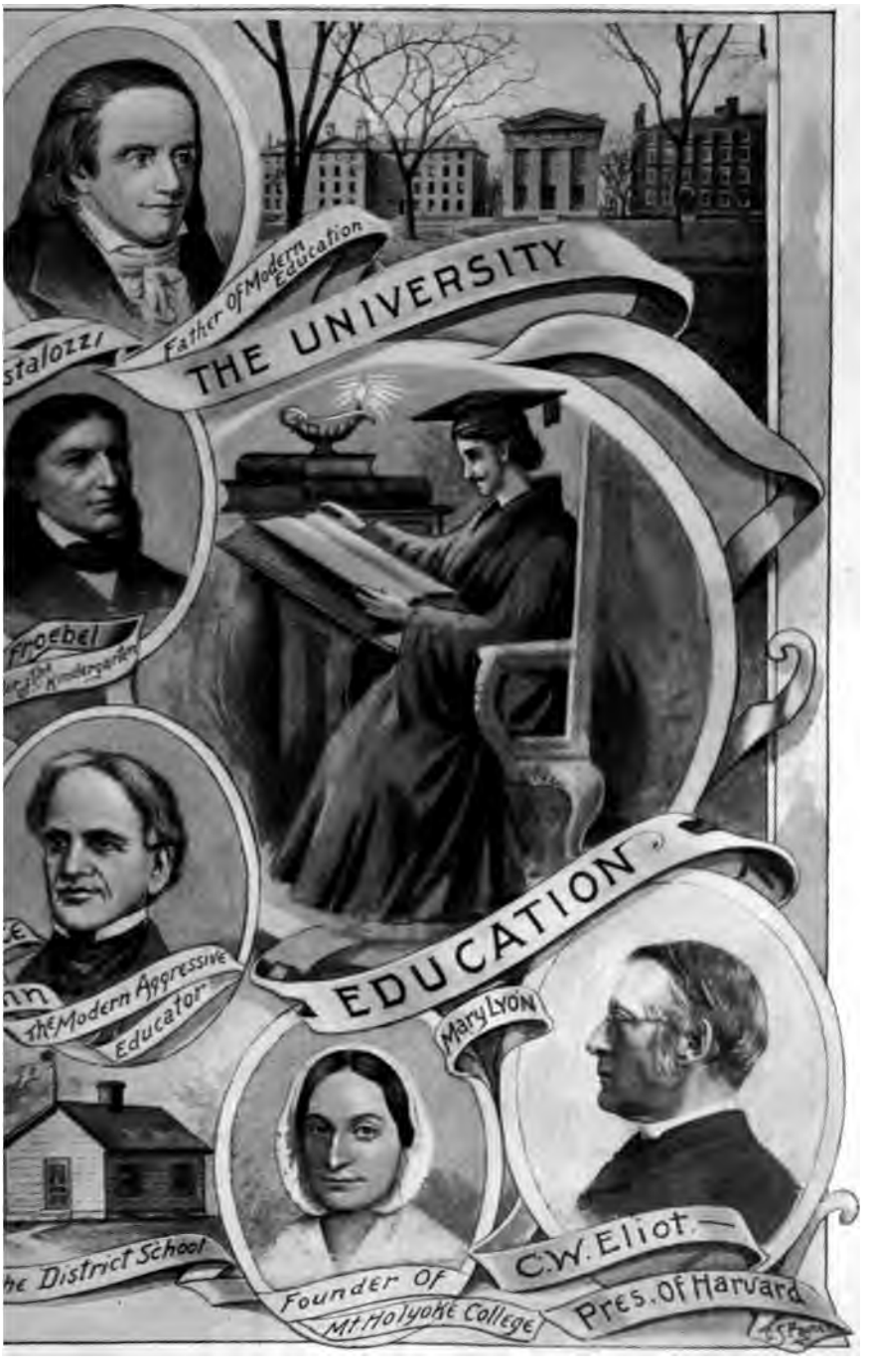
STORY OF EDUCATION.

MOLDING INFLUENCE OF GREAT EDUCATORS.

IN ancient times only the privileged few were permitted to drink at the fountains of knowledge. Popular enlightenment was not encouraged among the common people.

In the broad meaning of the word, however, education is as old as the race. Human life from the beginning compelled an adjustment to its conditions, and human instincts prompted activities which insured development. Experience taught the individual. These lessons men shared with one another. Manual arts passed from father to son. Social principles and moral ideas, however simple or crude, were also transmitted. Each generation sought to endow that which followed with the results of its own experiences and achievements. The art of writing, making possible the record of man's accumulating knowledge, promoted immensely its transmission; and the printing press has greatly enlarged the resources and possibilities of education. In ancient times education was an interest of the state. Popular enlightenment was not considered, and class distinctions were protected. All instruction imposed the claims of authority, and free inquiry was not encouraged. Educational advantages were confined largely to the upper classes, and the custodians of knowledge were usually priests. Not until we reach Greece and Rome do we find greater freedom, and more scope for individual initiative.

The learning of Egypt was a proverb to the Old World. Greeks, Phœnicians, all who visited the land of the Nile,


Pestalozzi
Father Of Modern Education
THE UNIVERSITY
Froebel
the Modern Aggressive Educator
EDUCATION
Mary Lyon
C.W. Eliot
the District School
Founder Of Mt Holyoke College
Pres. Of Harvard

wondered at the lore of its priests ; but the Pharaohs provided nothing for the common people. Education was intended for warriors and priests. The latter received the highest training. Institutions existed at Memphis, Thebes, and Heliopolis. In these were taught mathematics and astronomy. Geometry and surveying were of obvious value to a people whose lands were annually inundated. Language was studied. History, law, and government, and something of physics and natural history, were subjects of instruction, and the priestly class were especially inducted into the mysterious rites and dogmas of the Egyptian religion. To a boy intended for business only, reading and writing with a little of arithmetic were taught. It is believed that all parents taught reading and writing to their children, even to girls. For girls, however, there were no schools. In the teaching of writing, the bark of the papyrus reed was used. The ordinary boy or girl learned to write only the common character (the demotic) and not the hieroglyphic. In learning to reckon, children used apples and other tangible objects, thus anticipating one of our modern methods. Music and gymnastics were not taught.

Recent research tends to show that social distinctions did not prevent the gifted son of a poor man from rising to honor and power. Renouf even questions the existence of castes in Egypt. Bruzsch thinks that the schools for scribes were open to all, and says that many monuments commemorating men of high position record the fact that "his ancestors were unknown people." Low birth did not preclude education, if special abilities justified it, and distinction won in school might lead to public preferment. Certainly nothing hindered one's passage from the class of warriors to the priestly class. Ethical training had some place. We learn from Herodotus that the young were carefully taught respect for age.

Mesopotamian civilization has left interesting evidences of its educational aims and methods. All Babylonian temples

had schools attached to them. Some of the great temples had institutions that fostered certain specialties. The great center was Borsippa. Its school cultivated medicine and astronomy. Tablets have been found showing that reading and writing at least were taught to all youth except the lowest and poorest. From Babylonia learning passed to Assyria. In the ruins of Assurbanipal's palace (seventh century B. C.) were found many thousand tablets of baked clay, which were its library. The inscriptions are cuneiform. These were largely copies of tablets in the old temple libraries of Babylonia, as certain inscriptions expressly testify. Indeed, Babylonian duplicates exist. Many tablets were found, arranged in a series for educational use. A spelling book explained about two hundred of the most common characters. Hand books appear, containing on one side of the tablet short phrases in Babylonian, on the other in Assyrian. The library has also its reading books, grammars, and dictionaries. Deeds have been found in Babylonia, belonging to the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries B. C., and contracts as old as the twenty-first century. Some rough tablets appear to have been done by pupils, and bear marks of corrections. The Assyrian library of tablets was arranged according to a catalogue. A Babylonian text says that every father was required to teach his child to read the inscriptions.

The training of the Persians was mostly physical and moral. To read was not deemed requisite. Astronomy, philosophy, medicine, were the studies of the Magi. The king learned from them what he knew of government and religion. The ordinary boy was trained for a soldier. Up to seven years of age he was with his mother. Thereafter up to fifteen he had gymnastic and military exercises. These were superintended by men over fifty years of age appointed by the government. He was trained to ride, to shoot the bow, to hurl the spear, to tell the truth, to obey authority. He must endure hardness, and practice self-control. To this end he was sub-

jected to extremes of heat and cold, and had simple food and little clothing. If boys quarreled, a jury chosen by themselves gave the decision, and the principles governing the decision must be stated. Trials of this kind upon various charges gave a training in justice. For further moral instruction, legendary poems were sung or recited, and these were often learned. Nothing seems to have been done for the training of girls. The ideal of the Persians was narrow, but, in their earlier history, some noble results in character were realized by their education.

The Jews had at first no elementary schools. As parents were required to teach their children the law, they taught them to read and write. So much of knowledge is thought to have been general. The training was largely religious, but the art of reckoning was taught, also singing and dancing. The boy must also acquire some trade, craft, or profession. Girls were trained only by their mothers, chiefly in the employments of their sex, in dancing, in singing, and perhaps to play some instrument. Priests and Levites had more education. The former knew something of astronomy. The care of the latter over weights and measures seems to imply acquaintance with mathematics. A few of the Hebrews only are conspicuous for learning. Moses was versed "in all the wisdom of the Egyptians." Daniel was reputed to excel in the knowledge of his time. Solomon must have been a man of large attainments. The book of Job reveals considerable knowledge of astronomy and natural history. In general, however, "wisdom" to the Hebrew stands for moral and religious culture and integrity. The "schools of the prophets" taught chiefly the law, but attention was given besides to poetry, music, and medicine. Women were sometimes instructed in them. After the captivity, schools grew up in connection with the synagogues, and foreign languages began to be studied. Especially after the dispersion, the Jews studied geometry, botany, astronomy,

Not a few mastered Greek, and much of the knowledge of their time. Both before and after our Lord's time were schools of the Rabbis. Their education was religious, theological, ecclesiastical. In their days teachers were highly esteemed. Elementary schools were strongly encouraged. The relation of teacher and pupil would be beautiful, if to the latter "the fear of his instructor should be as the fear of heaven," and if to the former "the honor of the pupil should be as dear as his own."

Nowhere in the world, perhaps, is primary education for boys more widely diffused than in China. Girls are taught nothing except household duties. Reading and writing are difficult to learn. Few boys go further. The higher education consists of instruction in the Chinese classics. This essentially literary education is the road to public office. Mathematics, science, languages, geography, and for the most part history, are neglected. Law and statistics have some attention. An elaborate system of examinations is maintained by the government. Men go up to these at all periods of life, even in old age. After repeated examinations they attain to membership in the Imperial Academy, draw money from the royal treasury, and may be appointed to the highest offices. In this education the memory is trained at the expense of the thinking powers. No normal schools exist. Teaching is cramming. Originality in a theme set for examination would be fatal to the candidate. Here lies the explanation of China's adherence to traditional ideas. The Chinese classics were partly composed and partly compiled by Confucius (sixth century B. C.). Half a century before, Laotsze urged the duty of a ruler to enlighten his people. About this time competitive examinations were established, but the "Book of Rites" (1200 B. C.) says that "amongst the ancients villages had their schools, districts their academies, departments their colleges, and principalities their universities." The moral precepts impressed upon the young teaching

respect for age and reverence for parents are creditable, but ethics in general are merely prudential and secularistic. On the intellectual side, reading, writing, and reckoning are a meager showing for the masses, while the higher, literary education of the official class is an object lesson to all the world in misdirected zeal.

The education of India is restricted by caste. Higher instruction is intended principally for the Brahmans, but the schools are open also to the caste of soldiers and rulers, and to that of farmers and traders. All children are taught the usages of worship and the minute regulations of caste. Girls, and members of the lowest caste, receive no other teaching. All teachers must be Brahmans. They constitute the learned class. Boys go to school at six or seven. They receive moral precepts, and are taught to read, write, and reckon. Their first writing is in the sand, for except in bad weather school is in the open air. Lessons are learned by rote. Older pupils help in teaching—an idea which appears still later in the advance of education. No attention is given to physical training. Teachers receive their compensation through voluntary gifts. The higher schools have a course of twelve years. Pupils of the second and third castes take but part of it. The course includes grammar, mathematics, astronomy, history, poetry, philosophy, medicine, law. Mathematics has been successfully cultivated. The most advanced education was in the Vedic hymns. It sought to produce guardians of the sacred books who should transmit them exactly to posterity. Even now, with many printed texts, the Vedas are often orally taught, and learned by rote.

In education, as in literature, Europe, and so America, must look to the Greeks for the sources. From them to ourselves educational progress may be clearly traced. The elements of Greek training were grammar, music, and gymnastics. The first two were sometimes spoken of under the one name

"music," for whatever refined the mind was within the province of the Muses. "Grammar" always implied literature. When boys had learned to read and write, they learned choice passages of poetry, particularly of Homer. What an education that was for the literary sense! The gnomic and lyric poets were used in the same way. All had a moral as well as an intellectual value. Music, in the stricter sense, included singing and playing on the lyre. Gymnastics included dancing.

At seven boys and girls were separated. No schools for girls existed. They learned feminine duties, with reading, writing, and accounts, at home from servants and their mothers. When married, they might learn something from their husbands, and they could attend the representations of tragedy. Only women without character sought a culture comparable to that of men. Only freemen's sons were educated. Four out of five in the population of Attica were slaves. At Sparta even the ruling class had very meager training. She had no poets, historians, or orators. At Athens there was a strong public interest in education, but it was a matter of private enterprise. The supervision of the state appeared only in regulations designed to conserve morality. At one time no man was allowed to enter a school building. From seven to seventeen the schoolboy was in the care of a *pedagogus*, who was not a teacher, but a slave of mature years, chosen for his trustworthiness, to guard the boy's habits and behavior. He accompanied him to and from school, and to the gymnasium and other amusements. The school opened early. There were morning and afternoon sessions. For writing, a wax tablet and a stylus were used. Copies were set. In arithmetical operations the fingers were used, with apples and other concrete objects. Great attention was paid to reading, and there were exercises in composition. The importance attached to primary education appears in the designation of a blockhead as "one who knows neither swimming nor letters." When, in the

second Persian war, the Athenians sent their wives and children to Trœzen, the Trœzenians provided instruction for their children. The people of Mitylene once punished allies who had revolted, by forbidding the education of their children.

Music was taken up at thirteen. At Thebes the flute was much used. Quite characteristically, the Athenians disliked the flute because it prevented a vocal accompaniment and distorted the features! They preferred the lyre. The Greeks had no harmony, no orchestra. They regarded music as refining and moralizing. Plato highly extols the effects of music, but carefully discriminates the proper sort. The profession of musician was not esteemed. Some gymnastic training found place in early boyhood, but more formal gymnastics began at sixteen. In earlier times this training was given by private teachers. Later the state provided gymnasia for physical training. The Athenians thought the training of the Spartans made them brutal. Their own ideal appears in the words of Pericles, "We cultivate the beautiful without loss of manliness." Mere hardiness was not valued.

The calling of an elementary teacher was regarded lightly. A comic writer has this fling, "The man is either dead or teaching the alphabet." Demosthenes, contrasting himself with his great rival, says, "You taught a primary school." At twelve or fourteen, most poor boys left school to earn their livelihood. More favored youths took higher instruction, particularly from the age of Pericles onward. They studied rhetoric, mathematics, and philosophy, but no history, and no foreign language. The abler rhetoricians and sophists were much sought after, and received large pay. For this latter reason among others, Socrates condemned them. Plato deemed them hostile to true philosophy. Mr. Grote's defense of them is exaggerated, but some did give a certain training for public life, and their teaching improved the language.

For his own age, and for all time, Socrates was an immense

educational force. He stands as the representative of all that is developing and inspirational in personality and in method. Contact with him was always stimulating, and sometimes was an electric shock. The prime necessity was "Know thyself." The indispensable condition of learning was to be conscious of one's ignorance. He claimed no disciples. He and his "companions" were investigators in common. His method was intellectual midwifery. He helped men's thoughts to their birth. They sought together for definitions and principles. How relentlessly he unmasked pretension, brought low conceit, and cleared the ground of false or inadequate conceptions! Surely this was education.

Plato's theories of education concern only magistrates and soldiers. For these alone was the system of his Republic prescribed. In these classes women were to have the same training as men. For the common people no change was proposed. In developing his lofty but impracticable scheme of higher study for the "leading" and "guardian" classes, he presents many suggestions of general value, but public education in our modern sense cannot be credited to Plato.

The ideas of Aristotle are not revolutionary. Education is a matter of private initiative. Slaves are excluded, and women. He does not accept Plato's theory of women's equal rights and duties. He esteems physical training only for health and vigor. In morals we must train to the exercise of virtues before giving reasons. He adds drawing to the elementary studies, as developing the sense of the beautiful, and values music. Higher mathematics he did not esteem as Plato did, but he emphasized rhetoric, disputation, philosophy, and politics. He has many wise hints.

The Greek schools of philosophy stand for advanced education. The philosophers and rhetoricians of later days were, so to speak, university professors. At Athens in post-Christian times they were sometimes supported and controlled by the

tate. Roma owed chairs. Professors had alaries. Pupils paid fees. Rhodes, Massilia (Marseilles), Tarsus, and Alexandria had also their higher schools, with courses asting from five to eight years. Some features of student life eem germs of modern university customs.

Long before this later period, intermediate schools had prung up, and their studies became "the seven liberal arts" f the Middle Ages. The first three were grammar, rhetoric, nd logic, later known together as the "trivium"; and arithnetic, music, geometry, and astronomy, afterwards desigated the "quadrivium." Not until a late epoch of Hellenic ife were any foreign languages studied. In spite of this lack, Greek education in all its stages had decided merits. We nust credit much to the genius of the race, but training had ome share in the brilliant results.

Roman education in its lower forms was not essentially ifferent from Grecian, but its aim was more practical, to form citizen and soldier. Children were longer under family influnce, and there was no early gymnastic training. The inclinations of the father determined the amount of instruction. chools were still private, and primary teachers were little steemed. Moral principles were carefully inculcated. An bacus, with movable balls on it, was used in teaching arithnetic. Teachers had no training for their calling. The higher ort were honored. These imparted real culture. After the onquest of Greece, the Greek language was taught. Many ublic men at Rome knew it well. In this study of a foreign anguage, Rome made a distinct advance in education, and rom this step there has been no lapse.

Cicero makes the aim of education to be the perfection of he individual. He values highly the educative influence of efinement in early amusements and associations, and thinks orporal punishment only a last resort. He favors the learning f choice passages from Greek and Roman poets. Greek, his-

tory, philosophy, are conditions of higher culture. He does not insist on mathematics or appreciate the study of nature. Quintilian urges that nurses should speak well, with correct pronunciation and expression. Memory should be cultivated early. The study of language should begin with Greek, and that of Latin should soon follow. Good teachers are necessary from the beginning, and should be men of ability, or without conceit. Amusements should be means of instruction. Forms of letters may be taught by playthings. He opposes beating. Precocity is not to be encouraged. Teachers should study the characters and dispositions of pupils. Natural tastes should be somewhat considered, but not too much, for education must strengthen and develop whatever is inadequate. Public instruction is preferable to private. Large classes draw out the teacher, and the friendships formed at school are important. Rest is found in diversity of studies. Failures are due more to faults of education than to lack of capacity.

The Emperor Nerva ordered the poor children of Italy to be educated at public expense. An institution for poor girls was established by Antoninus Pius in honor of Faustina. The more advanced schools of the Romans, like those of the later Greeks, became seminaries of the "seven liberal arts."

Early Christian education was chiefly religious. Parents taught children to read, and instructed them in Scripture narratives. Not until the fourth century did Christian boys attend the general schools. Catechetical schools, teaching the truths of religion, were organized to prepare candidates for baptism. One founded at Alexandria in the second century became a seminary which taught not only theology, but philosophy, rhetoric, mathematics, and philology. When monastic life had been developed, Chrysostom, Tertullian, and Jerome favored monastic schools. Most of the Fathers, but not all, were averse to teaching pagan literature and philosophy. With the spread of Christianity monastic schools flourished,

and soon b[illegible] of ancient learning. While education [illegible] of the church, and had often a theological [illegible], [illegible] "tl[illegible] ven liberal arts" of the old schools held their place. The Church Fathers were read, and expurgated classic authors. Arithmetic and geometry were limited. Rhetoric was based on Quintilian and Cicero, and logic on Aristotle. While the original schools of St. Benedict excluded secular learning, there came later a clear perception of the important relation of liberal studies to theology. Cathedral and parochial schools also grew up, the former to prepare youths for the priesthood, the latter to instruct the young in Christian duties. The former had an "arts" course, but gave prominence to religion. Some of the laity were admitted. The latter were similar to the catechetical schools of the earlier time.

In the eighth century Charlemagne showed great interest in education. He aimed to establish a system both of ecclesiastical and of lay schools. A palace school was instituted for the sons of the king and of his nobles. In general, learning was at a low ebb. Some cloister schools were teaching the liberal arts, but most of them had degenerated. Charles proposed to improve existing schools and found new ones. The learned Alcuin was invited to his court, and this scholar had great influence in France. In this same century the Venerable Bede founded a cathedral school at York. Greek and Latin writers were studied in this English school, as they had been even earlier in the Christian schools of Ireland. Though the successors of Charles had not his zeal, the curriculum of monastic and cathedral schools gradually became broader, and many besides the clergy enjoyed their advantages. Those preparing for the priesthood studied in the cloister or "inner" school; the laity attended the "external" school, although this was within the precincts of the monastery or cathedral. The Norman and Saracenic invasions ensued, and the tenth century

marks a falling off in learning. About the middle of the eleventh century it had greatly declined. By kings and barons it was despised. The spirit even of the church opposed its cultivation. Some bishops prohibited the reading of Virgil. Anselm, to his credit, advised it. This decline of learning was due in part to millennial notions, and in part to the struggle of society for its very life.

Chivalry arose in the tenth century, and flourished between the eleventh and thirteenth. Baronial schools sprang up at castles. They did little for letters, but much for manners and manhood. Reading and verse-making were the sole literary elements. Burgher or town schools were organized. These were adapted to practical life. The mother tongue was taught, with arithmetic, geography, history, some natural science, and Latin. Salaries were small. Teachers went from place to place. The clergy sought to control even these schools, but in the end municipal oversight and management prevailed.

Moslem learning had its part also to play. It arose in the eighth century. Literature, art, philosophy, mathematics, and medicine flourished. Mosques had schools. Euclid and Aristotle were translated into Arabic. The latter had been mastered by Moslem teachers before Christian scholars knew him. Bagdad, Cordova, Granada, and Seville became seats of learning, and thither Christian students resorted. The impulse thus received contributed to the rise of Christian universities in Italy and France.

Up to the end of the eleventh century, the monastic schools were teaching the traditional "trivium" and "quadrivium." They had conserved learning, if they had not promoted it. The children of laymen were admitted. The commercial towns fostered their vernacular schools. As printing was not yet invented, there was much of dictation and of learning by heart. The force of authority was somewhat relaxed. Scotus Erigena had even ventured to say that "authority is derived from

, not reason from authority." The Crusades had united
e in a common enthusiasm. Men's knowledge of other
was widening, and they awoke to larger thought. The
f Europe was favorable to the next step in education, the
ng of universities. They were developed out of monastic
ıedral schools. Those schools which had well maintained
nstruction in the "seven liberal arts" had drawn ambi-
ınd gifted pupils from all quarters. The influence of
nic schools made potent a demand for higher and broader
edge. Less influential was the learning of the Byzantine
empire, some of it filtering through Venice toward the

traditionary learning itself had so grown as to demand
ization. Separate schools for advanced instruction in
ne subject were founded by bishops or by nobles. Special-
, however, presumed previous study in arts, and the arts
became an organic part of the university. The eleventh
y saw three, Bologna for law, Salerno for medicine, and
or theology. Among physicians and lawyers there was a
ı anti-clerical feeling. In general, universities were open
and studies might be freely pursued. Early teachers
ften clergymen, but others soon found place, and were
sible only to the state or to public opinion. The Pope
ecognition to universities, and certain privileges, but did
und them. The term "university" was used to desig-
rofessors and students as forming a community. Among
ıdents were often boys from twelve to fifteen years old.
ttendance was very large. Faculties were gradually
at Paris one of medicine in 1265, and one of law in 1271.
1100 to 1300 ten universities were founded; in the four-
century, eighteen; in the fifteenth, twenty-nine. From
ford monastic school going back to 800, a university was
ped in the twelfth century. That of Cambridge was but
ıter. The first German university was founded at Prague

in 1348. Early in the fifteenth century Vienna, Heidelberg, and Leipsic had universities. In the later Reformation period the rivalry of Catholics and Protestants gave rise to many more.

Degrees were first given in medicine. That of A.B. was first given at Paris after three or four years' study of the "trivium." Intellectual activity and the scientific spirit were little developed until the later, special studies were taken up. A "bachelor" was merely a youth in "arts." He was like an apprentice, looking forward to the rank of "master." After six years in arts, he might be examined for the higher degree. At Bologna eight years were required. England in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries had few grammar schools. Young boys went directly to the universities. The studies leading to A.B. were grammar, arithmetic, rhetoric, and logic. Latin was the staple of instruction. Geometry, astronomy, and philosophy were advanced subjects leading to A.M. In Germany "doctor" and "master" were synonymous.

The Renaissance had its harbingers in Dante and Petrarch of the thirteenth century, who had studied the ancients not for their form but their spirit. The end of the fifteenth century marks the revival of learning. So fixed, however, were the studies and methods of the universities, that at first "the humanities" were not welcomed. This was the fitting name for the Greek and Roman classics, when studied for style and substance, and as the mirror of human life. When Constantinople had fallen, scholarly Greeks were dispersed through Europe. Interest in the old Greek literature was kindled first in Italy. George Eliot's "Romola" gives a true presentation of Florentine enthusiasm for the new learning. It soon spread over all Europe, and education largely changed its aims. The invention of printing, and the common use of paper, had come in the nick of time. Ten thousand editions of books and pamphlets, including the chief Latin authors, were printed before 1500. All the best Greek classics were published soon after.

could now be accelerated. Dictation was no longer nec-
, and mere memory-work was lessened. Thought was
lated. The views of scholars could now be readily com-
Students need no longer go great distances to hear

manism had been somewhat developed by the schools of
ethren of the Common Life at Deventer in Holland even
latter part of the fourteenth century. They studied
and Roman classics, and until the invention of printing
d income from copying books. In the fifteenth century
ed the education of Northern Europe. Erasmus was one
ir pupils. He went to England to learn Greek at Oxford.
ward he wrote several treatises on education. He em-
ed moral and religious instruction for the young, and
roved severity in discipline. He held that power in
sion comes from conversation and reading, rather than
rules. He believed in educating girls. He says most
ly that "nothing nourishes a noble and modest disposi-
nore effectually than the discipline of instruction."
e Reformation contributed to intellectual progress.
r urged popular education. Schools must be thoroughly
ian. Rulers should compel children to be sent to school.
and poor should have like opportunities. The languages
l be taught in every town. He insists also upon gymnas-
music, mathematics, history, and logic. Melanchthon, the
eptor of Germany," was a teacher only through his text
on Latin and Greek grammar, rhetoric, logic, ethics, and
s. His Greek grammar was written at fourteen. Fifty
ns of his Latin grammar were published. Like Erasmus
Luther, he did much in founding Protestant schools.
of his private pupils became distinguished teachers.
e of these was Trotzendorff, who taught at Goldberg
sia. He added a little Greek to the traditional Latin
nar, rhetoric (in Latin), and logic. Latin became the

language of the school. Certain authority was delegated to senior pupils. Monitors of different functions administered the regulations. Offenses were tried by a tribunal representing the school. He deemed these arrangements a training for citizenship. The head master gave religious instruction. He died in 1556.

More eminent and successful was Sturm, who became director of a school in Strasburg, in 1537. In 1566 it became a university. He had studied under the Brethren of the Common Life at Liège, and at the universities of Louvain and Paris. In 1538 he published his plan for the Strasburg school. His letters to his masters in 1565 mark out ten years of study, from seven to seventeen. The main purpose was to impart a complete mastery of expression. The boy began with Latin grammar, and Latin classics followed. After four years, Greek was begun, and it continued, only secondary to Latin, through the whole course. Latin composition and verse making were practiced. In the earlier years the German catechism had place, and music. Rhetoric and logic, illustrated by Greek and Roman writers, came in the last three years. The knowledge of things he conceived to belong to the university stage of study. His training was purely humanistic. Boys might be punished for using the mother tongue. His course was well adapted to its end. It established a model for the German "gymnasium" and such English schools as Westminster and Eton. He had thousands of pupils, and enjoyed the patronage of monarchs and the applause of the learned.

The schools of the Jesuits have features of great interest. Though founded to bring about a religious reaction, they taught the desired secular learning. They did nothing for elementary instruction, but they had great colleges, middle colleges, and little colleges. These last were secondary schools, carrying pupils from ten to sixteen. The aim was to teach Latin, but Greek had a subordinate place. Expurgated classics were

used. Instruction was gratuitous, but presents were received. Pupils not intending to join the order paid something for board. All teachers had a special training for two years. Great pains was taken to study the characteristics of pupils, and to gain their affection. Flogging was a last resort, but administered by a special officer, never by a teacher. Teaching was very thorough. They said "Repetition is the mother of studies." Reviews were frequent. Emulation was largely appealed to. Even boys in lower classes were paired off as rivals to correct each other. The whole school might divide into two companies, to question each other, or to correct erroneous answers which might have been given to the master's questions. Prizes were given and the schoolrooms displayed rolls of honor. Religion was taught, but arithmetic, geography, history, and the modern languages must be learned as "extras," perhaps on holidays.

Not all thinkers were satisfied with mere language training. Rabelais (1483-1553), in his sketch of the training of a youth, lays emphasis upon arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music, and recommends geography and history. Especially does he favor the observation of nature, and would have the study of things based upon the examination of things themselves. In this he anticipates Pestalozzi. Manual labor should accompany mental work. He would study the ancient authors for what they teach about things. The pupil should compare his observations with their statements. He should know fishes, herbs, trees, birds, metals, precious stones. Conversation should turn on practical subjects. He valued the personal influence of a tutor more than books. Education must employ the senses, develop equally the mind and the body, and subserve practical ends.

The idea of Montaigne (1533-1592) is to train the reason and form the man. Simple moral lessons should be given early. He would teach the mother tongue and modern languages, then

the elements of geometry, rhetoric, logic, and physics. Then the pupil will quickly master that knowledge to which he shall himself most incline. The chief study of a gentleman should be history. It is only gentlemen's sons that are considered in his theories. He holds that "to know by heart is not to know." The soul must incorporate its knowledge. The student's inclination may be considered, but not too far, for he should be taught the elements of all the best and most useful studies. His understanding should not be subjected to authority, but developed into independent activity. Montaigne represents a reaction against Renaissance learning. Some of his sentences are pregnant with significance. Thus: "I would first understand my own language, then that of my neighbor." "Let your pupil be well furnished with things, words will follow only too readily." "What a man rightly knows and understands, he freely disposes of at his own full liberty." His educational hints have been fruitful.

Other innovators suggested new methods of learning Latin and Greek. Colet, who founded St. Paul's school at London about 1510, held that the facts of a language should be first learned. The best grammar is that which the pupil makes for himself. Desire no rules but examples from good authors. Latin speech came before Latin rules. Ascham (1515-1568) sets forth similar views in his "Scholemaster." He had been tutor to Queen Elizabeth, and cites her quickness in learning as justifying his method. After a boy had learned the rudiments of Latin, he would take a letter of Cicero, tell him the subject of it, translate it and construe it carefully before him, and then require him to read and parse it. He must then write out a translation. Shortly after, he must turn this English into Latin, which the teacher will then compare with Cicero. Ascham insists much on double translations. His method was a protest against learning grammar by rules. In urging the value of imitating a model, and of practice in writing, he antici-

ates some features of the "Ollendorff, "natural," and "in-
uctive" methods of our own time.

Richard Mulcaster, educated at Eton, Cambridge, and
xford, was head master of the Merchant Tailors' school in
ondon from 1561 to 1586. His views were published in his
Positions" and his "Elementarie," 1581 and 1582. The latter
obly urges the study of English. He hopes that "in time all
arning may be brought into one tongue, and that natural to
e inhabitant." He would not have too many highly educated,
ut all should be taught to read and write, also to draw with
en or pencil. Primary classes should be smallest, and elemen-
ry teachers best paid. Ample compensation would secure
mpetent teachers. He favors the education of girls as well
s boys. He advocates training-colleges for teachers. Edmund
penser was one of his pupils, as were also nine of King
ames's translators.

Ratich, born in Holstein, and educated at Hamburg and
ostock, was another innovator (1571–1635). His method of
eaching languages was similar to that of Ascham. More
nportant are some of his educational principles. His own
chools were failures, but his ideas were wonderfully sugges-
ive. The development of the mind has a natural order, to
hich education must be adapted. He recommends concentra-
ion and repetition, and discourages compulsion and learning
y rote. We should teach facts first, then the explanations.
irst exhibit a circle, then define it, and set forth its properties.
Nothing should be taken on authority, everything learned by
xperiment. The pupil should teach himself under his master's
uperintendence. The mother-tongue should be taught first.
There should be uniformity in text-books and methods. The
novement of mind is from the concrete to the abstract. Ratich
his real name was Ratke) has been termed a "Realist."

A far more potent factor in opening the way for later
nethods was Comenius (or Komenski), a Moravian bishop

(1591–1671). Michelet calls him the first evangelist of modern education. He was early an orphan, and sixteen years old before he began Latin. He represents the schools of his boyhood as breeding distaste for books. His first effort in education was to simplify Latin grammar. In 1616 he became a pastor. He suffered much through persecutions and wanderings in the Thirty Years War. His educational mission was paramount, and his writings in Latin, German, and Czech, were circulated throughout Europe. He wrote his "Great Didactics" in 1630. The Latin edition followed in 1640. The book of a Jesuit scholar, embodying a new method of learning Latin, suggested to Comenius his "Gate of Languages Unlocked," published in 1631, and soon translated into twelve European languages, besides Arabic, Persian, and Turkish. The plan was to collect all the common root words of the Latin, and with them to frame a very large number of sentences, in which much information was given about things. For a time the book was very popular. A book that sought to give each name of a thing but once might impart a Latin vocabulary, but it did not set aside the classics. His "Orbis Pictus" or "Visible World" was published in Nuremberg in 1657, and served as a text-book for a century. The plan was similar to his "Gate of Languages," but every topic was illustrated. The pictures faced the text. Objects named in the text were numbered in the pictures. The life of the times is quaintly delineated. He strangely anticipated the illustrated books of modern schools, but his pedagogical principles are more valuable.

They applied to education the philosophical doctrine of Bacon that by observation of facts we proceed by induction to general laws. The steps necessary for the development of mind were like those laid down for the acquisition of truth. Comenius was one of the first to see what elementary studies should be, and to establish definite grades of instruction. The mother's school was to train the senses; the common school to

train memory and imagination, the hand and tongue; the gymnasium to train the understanding and judgment. The common schools are for children of both sexes. Those who are to have other than manual occupations will go to the gymnasium. The university is to train teachers and future leaders. Elementary teaching must have a psychological basis, and faculties be developed in their natural order. Object-lessons should be employed. Words and things must be taught together, and the sciences of nature should not be neglected. The common school is to be a school of the mother-tongue. He wished its instruction to be such that pupils leaving it at thirteen years should have enough general knowledge to fit them for practical life. All languages should be learned conversationally as the mother-tongue is. Many of his educational suggestions are the truisms of modern pedagogy. He favored some teaching in arts and handicrafts. As aids to instruction, he desired maps, models, and specimens. In the higher classes of the vernacular school, he would have a modern language taught. Moral delinquencies only should be punished. Education should exercise the senses as much as possible.

His plan for training children up to six years anticipates in part the "Kindergarten." Children in play and in talk develop one another's powers. Intent play may sharpen the faculties. The constant activity of children must be regulated as a means to development, and occupation be provided for mind and hand. He would show them lines, squares, circles; teach them to draw, measure, and weigh; and give them some elementary facts of all sciences and arts. Some of his views were erroneous, and others were exaggerated, but his influence upon the development of education has been great. Our own gratitude for Comenius' work is kindled when we hear him saying the year before his death, "I thank God that through all my life I have been a man of aspirations."

In 1644 Milton published a "Tractate of Education." He

does not consider the training of young children, but presents an elaborate scheme for secondary and university education in one institution. The instruments of higher culture were to be Latin and Greek, but studied as "conveying to us things useful to be known." Authors deficient in literary quality were to be read for information upon matters of science or art. Thus agriculture would be studied in Cato and Varro. His aim seems to be not the development of faculties, but the imparting of knowledge. The youth must study geography, ancient and modern, with use of globes and maps, something of natural philosophy, mathematics as far as trigonometry, then architecture, engineering, navigation, fortification, anatomy, medicine, law. Biblical studies were prescribed, and ethics were to be taught through suitable ancient authors. Of modern tongues Italian only is favored. Apart from this, higher literary study will employ the Greek and Roman classics. Chaucer, Spenser, and Shakespeare were not included. Milton said well of his own scheme: "This is not a bow for every man to shoot in that counts himself a teacher." His small experience in teaching did not help his theories, and he made no important contribution to education.

Locke's "Thoughts on Education" were published in 1693. He also makes suggestions in his "Conduct of the Understanding." To him education is "an increase of the powers and activities of the mind, and not an increase of its possessions." Learning is "the last and least part of it." He deals with the training of gentlemen's sons only, and favors a private tutor rather than public schools. They should study English first, then French, Latin, and Greek. The last two are necessary for gentlemen only. He agrees with Montaigne and Ascham in methods of language teaching, and opposes Latin themes and verses. Health, morals, manners, practical wisdom, are highly valued. The natural curiosity of children is to be encouraged. In general, Locke's philosophy inclined him to ex-

gerate the educative influence of external circumstances. e prime necessity for the training of young children is the mation of habits.

No other speculative work on education has been so influen- l as Rousseau's "Émile," published in 1762. With many surdities and crudities, it advances ideas afterwards realized Pestalozzi. It arose from a comprehensive knowledge of man nature. Education is the development of the man, and quires a sympathetic study of child nature. The province of teacher is to guide development in harmony with natural lications, and the internal growth of our organs and facul- s. Education begins with ourselves, as soon as we begin to e. The teacher must study his pupils. Until they cease to children, train the body, but do not instruct the mind. ildren have their own way of seeing, thinking, and feeling. e must put ourselves in their place. Let the child develop powers freely, and follow his own fancies. Let his first achers be his eyes, hands, and feet. Let him compare sensa- ns, and learn to judge through his senses. Arouse curiosity, t do not quickly satisfy it. Let him solve his own problems. will discover relations, connect ideas, and devise instru- ents. Teaching is getting the pupil to learn. The great ing is to gain clear ideas. The teacher's aim is not to supply owledge, but to develop the faculty of acquiring it, a sense its value, and the love of truth. Rousseau was not a teacher, t presents in Émile an ideal education for his hero.

These ideas stimulated Basedow, who, in 1774, opened a hool at Dessau to work them out. He used objects in house, rden, and fields, and taught children largely in play and in nversation. It was largely objective teaching, and culti- ted observation. Experiments in method were freely made. nguages were taught, not by rules, but by practice in con- rsation. One of his assistants applied his principles to his ild Émilie, and a surprising precociousness was the result.

It remained for Pestalozzi (1746–1827), to realize the best fruits of Émile. That was the only book on education which he knew. He was fifty-two before he became a schoolmaster. His first charge at Stanz, over eighty homeless, destitute children, severely tested his capacity and his heart, but his enthusiasm and devotion were unlimited. Then he taught at Burgdorf from 1799 to 1804. In the latter year he opened his institute at Yverdun on Lake Neuchatel, and conducted it until 1825. His principles are set forth in his "Letters to Gesner" (1801) and in his "Swan-Song" (1826). He showed the world the need of elementary education, and set forth what it should be. Technical education also was urged. He grasped a few principles, forcibly advocated and patiently worked them out. His first effort was to develop the moral sense, by the exercise of simple virtues, rather than by precept. In mental training, too, faculties are developed by exercise. Bring the child into contact with concrete objects. Let him know them by experience. Train him gradually to the perception of number and form, and to express in language what he personally knows. In geology, botany, and natural history, begin with objective illustration. Practice in manual trades is desirable, but general education should precede technical. The foundation of all knowledge is in the senses. The chief end of elementary instruction is to increase and develop the mental faculties. Language should not outrun perception and acquaintance with objects. Studies should be psychologically adapted to present capacity. The child's individuality must be respected. Definitions and explanations are valueless, unless they connect themselves with ideas already gained. What is this but the modern apperception doctrine of Herbart? Our faculties exist at first only in germ. Our desire to exercise them is strengthened by their use. Words do not increase intelligence, unless related to living experiences. What the child understands, and what he does for himself, develops him. He must proceed from the

near to the remote, from the practical to the abstract, from the actual to the ideal. He must start with things which concern his immediate interest. He must not simply see, but perceive. The particular must precede the general. Even the study of higher subjects should begin with known facts. With principles like these Pestalozzi's practice was not always consistent, but his "mighty love" for his calling in large measure atoned for his defects. There is inspiration in his example, and his precepts have perennial vitality. In developing the consciousness of latent powers, he is to elementary teaching what Socrates is to higher culture.

Von Fellenberg (1771–1844), a man of wealth, established a school at Hofwyl to work out Pestalozzi's ideas. His teachers had large liberty. "We have principles," said he, "but no methods." Procedure varied with the subject and the pupil. Every five children had a teacher. Farming was taught, and there were shops for carpentry and shoemaking. Mental exercises were adapted to the pupil's powers. The intellectual ideal was intensity and accuracy.

As if Providence would round out the circle of educational endeavor, we have in Froebel (1782–1852) the originator of the kindergarten. Born in Thuringia, he studied in his early manhood at Yverdun the principles of Pestalozzi. He established the first kindergarten at Blankenburg in 1837. The purpose is "to take oversight of children before they are ready for school life; to exert an influence over their whole being in harmony with its nature; to strengthen their bodily powers; to exercise their senses; to employ the awakening mind; to make them thoughtfully acquainted with the world of nature and of man; to guide their hearts and souls." Normal growth must be aided by proper environment. Every human being is called to develop his individuality. This development requires activities. The means to these activities must be furnished, and the child encouraged to use them. He is developed by spontaneous endeavor.

The limbs, particularly the hand and the sense of touch, must be carefully exercised. Sight and hearing must be trained, and the instinct of construction encouraged. His social impulses must be drawn out and directed, that he may learn to love his fellows. He should be taught to care for animals and plants. Let him through a sympathetic acquaintance with nature learn conformity to its laws. Lead him from nature to man, and from humanity to God.

Space will allow brief reference only to the progress of the nineteenth century in the popularization of education both in Europe and in America by public expenditure. Soon after the Napoleonic wars Germany instituted its admirable system of public elementary instruction. Since the middle of this century the schools of France have been upon an excellent basis. England was long content with inadequate schools under private or religious control, but the zeal of Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster early in the present century to diffuse instruction among the masses awakened a general interest which led to government grants, and in 1870 to the national school-board system increasing constantly in efficiency. Other European governments are awaking to this great duty. Our own country, from the time of the colonies onward, has fostered education. The Eastern and Middle States have a noble record, the West has splendid provisions for its maintenance, and in recent years the South has caught the spirit of popular enlightenment. The land grants of the United States government have been wisely employed to promote education in the various states. A logical demand that the young shall avail themselves of such advantages has led many commonwealths to pass laws for compulsory attendance at the public schools. Higher education has made great advance both in Europe and in America. Women, by co-education and otherwise, partake of it. The English universities are broadening their course, and American colleges and universities have admitted the new sciences into generous

fellowship old "humanities." In our own country the name of Charles William Eliot will have enduring fame as the promoter of many wholesome modifications in higher education, and as the intelligent advocate of such a co-ordination of all our schools as shall make the twentieth-century education of America the just pride of all her sons.

WOMAN IN EDUCATION.

HER POWER AND INFLUENCE EVERYWHERE PREVALENT.

THE credit of preparing the way for the liberal education of woman belongs to woman. Public sentiment now accords to her the right to enter any field of literature or art.

Formerly, collegiate and university courses were closed against her, so that a really liberal education was not possible. Now this is all changed, and in our colleges, universities, and professional schools, the two sexes prosecute their studies together, to their mutual benefit. The numbers of thoroughly educated women who are now prepared to occupy chairs of instruction in the higher schools of our land, as well as the welcome given to woman's taste, tact, and power, in every department of our educational work, are some of the fruits gathered from the advance made in our theory and system of woman's culture.

Many eminent women have, by their own personal attainments, as well as by their services, contributed to this result; but, as in other lines of work there are some whose names are foremost, and whose labors are especially noteworthy.

Their work preceded and made possible the conditions now everywhere prevalent, which give to women the privilege of being as well taught as men; made possible the establishment and support of such great collegiate institutions as Vassar, Wellesley, and Smith, where women may take rank in all literary pursuits with their scholarly brothers.

The lives of three women, Emma Hart Willard, Mary Lyon,

was born Fel in, Connecticut.
arents, Samuel of the best New
nd stock, and she inherited the no st qualities of her
tage. Her father had unusual of intellect and
nd was well read in the English literature of the times;
other was a quiet, practical woman, gifted with tact,
firm, and efficient. Emma was one of seventeen of her
's children, and one of the ten which her own mother had
him; in this large family circle is found one of the
tant means of her education. The admirable home-train-
hich she received, supplemented by two years of study in
illage academy, guided by a skillful teacher, brought
a, when just past her seventeenth birthday, to the begin-
of her life work.

e had made good use of her opportunities, had been
ed to think and plan for herself. In literary attainment
n ability to learn she had exceeded her years. A girl of
en, who, on a cold winter's night, will wrap herself in
oak, and, making an observatory of the horse-block, mas-
e lesson in astronomy, has elements of character which
e best pledges of success

The spring of 1807 brought calls from three important schools, in Westfield, Massachusetts, Middlebury, Vermont, and Hudson, New York. She accepted the first named and took the position of assistant teacher in Westfield, but before the season was over accepted the call from Middlebury. Midsummer found her at the head of her new school there, where a year of "brilliant success" crowned her efforts, and settled the question of her fitness for the work she had chosen.

Here another call is made upon her. Dr. John Willard of Middlebury, a physician of good repute and a man of solid merit, discovered the gifts and graces of the young teacher, and was not very long in winning her heart and hand. Their marriage, which occurred in August, 1804, interrupted for a few years her work of teaching. But pecuniary reverses befell them, and, to aid in retrieving their fallen fortunes, Mrs. Willard proposed, in 1814, to return to her chosen profession, and opened in Middlebury a boarding school for girls. Meanwhile she was preparing for something more. She had discovered the weakness and unworthiness of the aims and results of that class of schools, and was particularly impressed with the difference between the collegiate course of a young man, and the highest culture which the best schools of the day furnished for young women. This discovery was a summons to a new work.

With great enthusiasm she entered upon it, reviewing the whole subject of woman's education, and determined upon an enlarged course of study which should correspond as nearly as possible with the collegiate course for young men. She found herself in advance of the age. Leaders in public opinion were not in sympathy with her, were not ready for the change. Fortunately her husband was in full sympathy with her, so she went on testing the feasibility of her plans; and by exploring new fields of science and literature, by teaching most thoroughly her classes, and submitting their proficiency to the criticism of the most learned men of the day, and by skillfully winning

over to her n leading minds she was preparing the way for a new era in woman's education.

She removed to Waterford, New York, in 1819, on the promise of aid from the gentlemen of that place to carry before the legislature a petition for incorporating and endowing the school. Then, for the first time, were the rights of women in regard to education advocated in legislative halls.

Governor Clinton heartily approved her measures and plans, and the legislature indorsed them so far as to incorporate the academy at Waterford, New York. A more important end gained by this movement was the action of the legislature appropriating the same pecuniary aid to academies in the state, designed for the education of women, as was given to institutions of learning for the other sex.

The success of the school was such as to call forth the following from Governor Clinton in his message of 1820 :—

"I cannot omit to call your attention to the Academy for Female Education, which was incorporated last session at Waterford, and which, under the superintendence of distinguished teachers, has already gained great usefulness and prosperity. As this is the only attempt ever made in this country to promote the education of the female sex by the patronage of government ; as our first and best affections are derived from maternal affections ; and as the elevation of the female character is inseparably connected with happiness at home, and respectability abroad ; I trust you will not be deterred, by commonplace ridicule, from extending your munificence to this meritorious institution."

The day of ridicule at any measure for the intellectual advancement of women has long gone by, so we can well afford to smile at the generous governor's suggestion to the legislature.

The citizens of Troy, observant of the success of the school at Waterford, offered to furnish a suitable building with

grounds, in that city, if Mrs. Willard would consent to a removal. This proposal was accepted, and in May, 1821, they took possession of the property, which since that date has been used for the Troy Seminary thus established.

Industrious and zealous in her profession, she added to the curriculum of her school the higher mathematics, geometry, trigonometry, algebra, conic sections, and Enfield's natural philosophy. Yet, with the added work necessary to make herself master of these studies, she made the same progress in personal culture that had heretofore marked her course. Dr. Willard died in 1825 and the whole business devolved upon her to manage. Her management of the school continued with marked success until 1838, when it became necessary for her to retire from the pressure of the work. Her son, Mr. John H. Willard, and his wife, who had been for many years connected with the school, as pupil, teacher, or vice-principal, accepted the trust and relieved her of its further care.

The wonderful success of this school gave increased stimulus to the cause of woman's education; more ready facilities were accorded to young women in collegiate institutions, and still greater results are seen in the large educational institutions expressly for women. Who will deny that Oberlin, Antioch, Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, are very greatly indebted for their success to the pioneer, Mrs. Emma Willard?

The seminary has educated about six thousand young ladies. Through the length and breadth of our land are scattered the many whose characters have been molded by the healthful influence of this school, which led the way in giving experimental proof that the most highly cultivated intellect is perfectly compatible with feminine gentleness and grace.

In 1830 Mrs. Willard traveled in Europe, and on her return published her "Journals and Letters from France and Great Britain." Her share of the proceeds she devoted to the support of a school which had been established in Greece mainly

through her . uring her long residence in Troy, she spent much of her time in revising numerous schoolbooks which she had written. Her schoolbooks had a large sale and were translated into a number of foreign languages. She died in the city of Troy, April 15, 1870.

The efforts to honor her memory have been very pleasing, the latest of which were consummated on May 16, 1895, when occurred the dedication of "Russell Sage Hall," which is built and given "to perpetuate the name and fame of Mrs. Emma Willard, the pioneer in higher education for woman." At the same time the statue erected in her memory was unveiled. This statue is of bronze and the work of Alexander Doyle, sculptor. It represents "Madame" Willard in sitting posture, holding an open book. A bronze tablet on the front of the pedestal contains this inscription :--

"IN HONOR OF
EMMA HART WILLARD,
WHO ON THIS SPOT ESTABLISHED,
A. D. 1821,
THE FIRST PERMANENT SEMINARY IN AMERICA
FOR THE ADVANCED EDUCATION OF WOMEN.
ERECTED BY HER PUPILS AND FRIENDS,
A. D. 1895.

HER MOST ENDURING MONUMENT,
THE GRATITUDE OF EDUCATED WOMAN."

In studying the history of strong and noble lives, they will frequently be found to crystallize around some central thought or purpose, which, if we discover, we shall have found the keynote by which these lives were toned and tuned.

Mary Lyon said toward the close of her grandly useful life, "There is but one thing I fear in all the universe, that I shall not know all my duty or fail in doing it." The sublimest lives

are the simplest ones. Certain great principles fixed, and the foundations are laid for structures strong, symmetric, and enduring.

Mary Lyon was born in Buckland, Franklin county, Massachusetts, February 28, 1797, of sterling, sturdy, pious New England stock. Early she evinced mental activity, an ardor for knowledge, and a retentive memory. As she grew older, working and teaching alternated with her studies, that she might have the necessary means for their further prosecution. She learned thus the methods to which she trained others, and opened a way to learning for the poor. The religious impressions received in her home were intensified at the school of Rev. Joseph Emerson of Byfield, to which she obtained access. Miss Lyon saw plainly that woman's education must not rest alone upon the popularity of teachers, but upon the firmer foundation of an endowed institution.

Of the highest type of teachers it is somewhat true, as of poets—they are born not made. It is a vocation. For him or her who walks worthy of it, it may well be doubted if any position on earth affords greater possibilities of usefulness, yields pleasanter experiences or higher honor.

Such a teacher was Mary Lyon. She magnified her calling. Entering into an arrangement as fellow teacher with Miss Grant, they endeavored to get an endowment for the Ipswich school, by appealing to the rich. Their failure proved, as has been proved so many times, that new ideas do not always start with the rich. The six years at Ipswich were delightful and brought her honor and affection; but she felt there was a greater want in the teaching field, and for herself greater usefulness. That place and work were to be in the foundation of a permanent seminary, large in scope, small in cost, high in aim, through which the many then deprived of the highest educational advantages because of their expense might obtain them, a seminary which should afford best advantages of intellectual

culture at smallest cost. The body was to be at its best, the mind trained, that through these the spirit might more fully glorify God.

In such spirit was the Mt. Holyoke Seminary conceived, and for such purposes founded. How was the conception to be realized, the purpose materialized? We may not note all the steps in this process from September 6th, 1834, when a few gentlemen met in her room at Ipswich to devise ways and means for founding a permanent female seminary upon principles and for purposes in harmony with her views, to October, 1836, when the corner stone was laid, to Nov. 8, 1837, when she opened its doors to receive the students who so eagerly came to share its benefits.

Distinguishing features of the school were the frequent revivals of religion and the thorough missionary spirit inculcated —the greatest service to the greatest number in the greatest need. As a result, more than a hundred graduates from Mt. Holyoke have gone to labor in mission fields. One feature of the seminary life is the constant communication kept up with these, its living links, in various lands. Of all the colleges that have since arisen for women, not one has been conceived in purer spirit, with nobler aims, or has added more to human good and happiness.

March 5, 1849, saw the end of Mary Lyon's earthly career. The noblest inscription to her memory is what her monument records :—

"Give her of the fruits of her hands and let her own works praise her in the gates."

Another whose influence is felt to the present day is Miss Catharine E. Beecher. She was born in 1800, and was educated in Connecticut. In 1822 she opened in Hartford an academy for young ladies, which records say was for ten years a very successful school, and that it had students from every state in the Union. She was assisted by her sister Harriet (a

sketch of whose life is found in this volume, in another connection), and there were often enrolled more than one hundred and fifty pupils. In 1832, settling in Cincinnati, she again opened a seminary, which, after two years, because of failing health, she was compelled to abandon. But she could not abandon her interest in educational matters, and immediately gave her attention and influence to the molding of public sentiment on the subject of education for women, and for forty years was a controlling spirit in an organization which sent hundreds of teachers to Western schools, to the territories, and to the South. During this time her pen was very active and she published a number of volumes, not only on matters pertaining to her own sex, but on theology, physiology, mental and moral philosophy, all of which show that Catharine was not an insignificant member of that celebrated American family of preachers and litterateurs.

Thus the work begun in the middle decades of this century, and taken up by the colleges, whose existence that pioneer work made possible, has in these last years furnished an opportunity for women adequately to prepare themselves for this high vocation, and they have most eagerly availed themselves of it.

In directing the affairs of colleges, woman has proved her ability. Pennsylvania College was first to create the office of dean in this country and invited Miss M. Carrie Thomas to administer its functions. Her fine ability and splendid record in that position won for Miss Thomas the presidency of Bryn Mawr. Chicago University, and Radcliffe, and Barnard colleges have women deans, while Wellesley, Mt. Holyoke, and Radcliffe have women in the presidential chairs. In other institutions for higher education of women where men hold the chief offices there are women principals, who are second in authority. Miss Thomas of Bryn Mawr is a young woman. She took the degree of A. B. from Cornell in 1877, then went to Johns Hop-

kins University, afterward to Leipsic and Zurich. She has great capacity for work, and dispatches the onerous duties contingent upon her deanship, and maintains at the same time her professional duties.

Another deservedly popular woman in the world of scholars is Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, the wife of Professor Palmer at Harvard. She was prominently known in educational circles when she was Miss Freeman, president of Wellesley, and also as dean of Chicago University. She was graduated from Ann Arbor in 1876 and has always used her influence in favor of woman's rights to high scholarly privileges.

Miss Marion Talbot was graduated from Wellesley in the class of 1880. Afterward she entered the Boston School of Technology; and, completing her course of study there, she was invited to lecture by her Alma Mater upon her specialty, science. These lectures she successfully conducted until the West offered her a chair in Chicago University.

Since the Harvard annex for women has taken a name, Radcliffe, it has elected a woman, Miss Agnes Irwin, as its dean, and Mrs. Louis Agassiz as president.

Columbia's annex, Barnard College, has chosen Miss Emily James Smith as its dean; who, although a young woman, is brilliantly equipped for the high position. She was graduated from Bryn Mawr in 1889, studying later at Girton College, Cambridge, England, then at the University of Chicago. She was called from her classes to Barnard, in 1894, and has already given good reason to prophesy a high position for her among the woman educators of to-day.

Miss Sarah McLean Hardy, a student at the University of Chicago, is to take the chair of history and political economy at Wellesley. She is only twenty-four, and "knows more about money and prices than many a gray haired economist." In the *Journal of Political Economy* recently published, she has an article on the "Quantity of Money and Prices from 1861 to

1893," which is described as "being an elaborate piece of investigation, containing an enormous list of prices."

But all the successful teachers are not found in colleges, universities, seminaries, and academies established for higher education of women. In the common schools of this country and Great Britain, the teacher finds an arena for tact and talent, a testing-place of powers, mental, moral, and physical. A half century ago, the country schools in the winter were taught by men, and in many cases men were employed the whole year round. Women ventured first in small summer schools, succeeded, and have by merit alone won a prominent place in the ranks of instructors in the common schools, until now a visit at a teachers' institute will prove that out of one hundred and fifty teachers not more than fifteen are men.

The same is true of our high schools and the schools in cities and towns. These are nearly always found to be provided with women principals, and when a man is employed in that position, as in the boys' schools of our larger towns, often his whole corps of assistants is of women. From the report of the committee on education in England, for the year 1894, we find that teaching has become an occupation for a very large number of women; the increase being in twenty-five years almost threefold, and the number reported in census of 1890 was nearly 300,000, with 735 in the colleges and universities.

In all that is of interest in education, women are taking a very active part. In many large cities and towns, where those who have had the management of the schools have hesitated to take steps leading to the establishment of kindergartens, manual training, cooking and industrial schools, women have stepped in and made beginnings which will eventually lead to success. This fact leads a prominent periodical to say: "It would be better for the children and better for the country, if intelligent women had proper representation upon every school board, because (1) they represent the mothers, who know best

how to deal with the needs of children; (2) they can understand and assist the teachers, nearly all of whom are women; (3) they would as far as they possibly could remove the schools from the influence of politics, and (4) they have no ambitions to serve, but offer themselves for the simple good of the children and the community."

A memorial was recently circulated and presented to the Board of Education of New York city, asking that, as vacancies should occur in the various wards, two out of the five trustees allowed for each ward should be women. The wife of Dr. William S. Rainsford was one of the signers, and has recently been appointed to fill such a position in her ward. She is of English birth, and a loving, practical student of educational matters; she is much interested in the training our school system offers. She is a firm believer in kindergarten work, having given it close study. It has been her custom to be frequently in the sessions of the schools where her three boys are in attendance, lending her influence to carry out all good features and assisting wherever possible. She believes also that the most satisfactory advance and the best results are obtained not where woman supersedes man, but from a union of labor and interest, from man and woman working side by side wherever possible, and that the influence of women is needed as directors of education on school boards, and as superintendents, who, acting with men of moral courage, shall use the school for the child, and not for selfish, personal, or political ends.

Many states now extend educational service to women as far as the superintendency, and some make them eligible to any educational office in the state. These facts indicate the vast change that sixty years have wrought in the relation of women to education.

KINDERGARTENS.

The first kindergarten was that opened by Froebel, at Blankenburg, in Thuringia. By invitation of royalty, he re-

moved to Liebenthal, where he began the training of young women for kindergarten teachers. Froebel dying in 1852, the cause of infant education was most enthusiastically espoused by Baroness Marenholtz-Bülow, whose zeal and intelligence interested all Europe. She became the kindergarten apostle of the continent, and the system was adopted by France, Italy, and England.

The story of the beginning of this system of instruction of little ones in America is full of interest. An inquiry directed to Mrs. Edward Everett Hale and to Mr. Wm. Howell Reed, concerning the work of Mrs. Fidelia Heard, a pioneer kindergartner, elicits a reply from Mr. Reed, of which the following is a part:—

"The first kindergarten in America was opened on the second day of April, 1860, by Mrs. Fidelia Heard. She was born in Easton, Mass., on the 13th day of August, 1821, and from her girlhood resided in Boston, until her marriage. She made one voyage with her husband, who was in command of the Barque Oriental, to the East Indies and Australia, going round the world. On her return, her husband, who had been stricken on one of his voyages with sunstroke, in the Indian Ocean, was so seriously affected mentally that the care of her two children devolved upon her, and in this exigency she worked out her plans for the establishment of a school for little children which she had been long maturing.

"These plans involved an entire departure from the methods then in use and were so radically different in what is called discipline, and in all the fundamentals, that in announcing them she looked for but little sympathy, expecting rather an amused indifference from her friends, if not ridicule. She persevered with them, however. They were original with herself and were worked out with the care and intelligence of a close observer of the needs of children and with the confidence of strong conviction.

"All this was during the fall and early winter of 1859. At

this time she asked the counsel of Rev. Edward Everett Hale, her minister. He saw with quick sympathy that she had unconsciously been working on the lines of the German kindergarten; that she had in her scheme the germs of that system without knowing that it had all been worked out with marvelous completeness by Froebel.

"Dr. Hale entered cordially into her plans, seeing that a great movement would then and there be inaugurated. He imported for her the English translations of Froebel's text books, he made the nucleus of the school by engaging to send his own children and influencing his friends to do the same, and in a few months after Mrs. Heard had mastered the new books the great system had its birth in America, in the little school opened in Concord Hall, Concord street, in the city of Boston. The notable thing about this is that Mrs. Heard should independently have worked out a crude system for herself, to which she gave no name, but which was on the line of the great Froebel's work, whose genius has enriched it in such varied and interesting detail.

"The *Christian Register* of March 17, 1860, has an editorial, giving an idea of the work done in a kindergarten, and also a kindly intimation of the intention of Mrs. Heard to open such a school. The *Register* of April 7, 1860, presents "Mrs. Heard's Prospectus," stating terms, hours, etc. For references, we find these names: Rev. Edward E. Hale, Rev. M. I. Motte, Rev. F. D. Huntington, William David Reed, Henry P. Kidder, Esq., Joseph Hale Abbott, Charles G. Wood, Esq.

"The school thus started sprang into popularity. It met a long felt want in the public mind. The fame of the school brought visitors, delighted parents brought their friends, and the first kindergarten was on its road to fame. Out of its loins sprang other schools, the first of this series being that established the next year, by Miss Peabody, who afterwards became the apostle of the kindergarten in this country. The beautiful

object lesson of Mrs. Heard's school, with the charm of quiet, motherly tenderness presiding over it, gave to Miss Peabody her first impressions of its possibilities. Many years passed before the system received public recognition. As they went on there came to Mrs. Heard a deeper knowledge and enthusiasm for her work, and this she communicated to others. She had taken the full normal course which had been provided for teachers in Boston; she had sounded the heights and depths of the great master's work in Germany, and when the infirmities of years came upon her and she retired from the school she had founded, she was happy in the consciousness that she had a part, a *great* part, though an unrecognized part, in the triumphs of this system of education, and that there were still grateful memories of her service in the hearts of hundreds of men and women which were undimmed by the mist of the years.

"Mrs. Heard passed away after a brief illness. She was a great natural teacher of children, and her name should now be honored and recognized as the pioneer in the kindergarten movement in America, and as the leader and teacher whose original thought gave the inception and the first impulse towards truer ideals in the education of little children. The later triumphs of the kindergarten are the triumphs of a multitude of noble minds, but, in weaving our garlands of honor, let us not forget Fidelia Heard."

When Carl Schurz and wife came to America and settled in Wisconsin, Mrs. Schurz, who was herself an adept in the theory, and expert in the practice by attending *con amore*, Froebel's own lectures and kindergarten in Hamburg, founded among the Germans around her a kindergarten. Through her, Miss Peabody became still better acquainted with the idea, and from this source gained new helps which she embodied in her school opened in Boston in 1861, and which was maintained for many years.

During this time, Miss Peabody published the "Kindergar-

ten Guide," and her school became known far and near. A visit to Europe in 1867, and a further study of the system, resulted in her still more open advocacy of the idea. What Baroness Marenholtz did for Europe, Miss Peabody did for America. She was the earliest and one of its most persistent advocates. Hers was the first literature on the subject—hers a pioneer labor.

About 1870 Mrs. Kriege and her daughter, the latter a graduate from the school of Baroness Marenholtz, opened in Boston the first true kindergarten, which still continues. The next year a kindergarten was attached to a private school in New York city, and Miss Boelte, a graduate of the Froebel Training School, was made director. In this school Miss Susan E. Blow of St. Louis was a pupil. Upon her graduation she returned home to introduce the system into the public schools of St. Louis. Miss Blow offered "gratuitous instruction to one teacher appointed by the board, and to supervise and manage a kindergarten, provided the board would furnish the rooms and a salaried teacher." The offer was accepted, and the first school was opened in 1873, the next year there were three others, and, in the centennial year, thirty such free kindergarten schools were reported in that city, and in 1880 the number enrolled in the public kindergartens of St. Louis was 7,828.

Such were the beginnings in Boston, New York, and St. Louis.—initiative work—inspired and accomplished by woman. Interest was soon communicated to other cities, large and small, and schools established. A few enthusiastic, sensible women teachers had found a place in the American system of education for a new influence, and had founded a new institution.

The charity kindergartens, that have done so much to put good influences and refined standards within reach of the waif and the neglected, are considered elsewhere in this work.

In 1878 Kate Douglas Smith, now so well known as Kate

Douglas Wiggin, then a resident of Santa Barbara, California, conceived the idea of establishing a free kindergarten for the little ones of the poor of San Francisco. This thought patiently and systematically wrought out until success crowned her persevering efforts is manifest in the Silver Street Kindergarten of San Francisco. This is a densely inhabited and unfashionable part of the city, but here may be found a company of cultured young women, faithfully carrying on a grand work. This splendid charity, although the conception of Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin, needed the generous assistance it received from Mrs. Hattie Crocker Alexander of San Francisco. She is grand in her philanthropy, and furnished ample means to carry on the work.

This was the first free kindergarten established west of the Rocky Mountains, and from this institution, during its brief existence, no less than sixty different offshoots, but entirely independent of the original, have sprung into being along the Pacific coast. There are nearly fifty in San Francisco, which have a daily attendance of more than three thousand children.

Up to 1893 the Silver Street Kindergarten was the only school, in the far west, for the training of teachers in its methods, and this department is now under the personal supervision of Miss Nora Smith, the sister of Mrs. Wiggin. A glance at the children in their work—or play—reveals numbers of them gathered in from squalid homes, where comfort is a thing unknown: here they are taught gentleness, kindness, and cleanliness, by this most delightful system, through whose songs and games their souls are unconsciously lifted to nobler heights, and their minds trained to receive higher grades of instruction, which will come in later years. On the walls of one of the apartments, opposite the entrance, hangs a portrait of the founder of the institution, and under it are these words:—

"Kate Douglas Wiggin. In this room was born the first free kindergarten west of the Rocky Mountains. Let me have

the happiness of looking down upon many successive groups of children sitting in the same seats."

This room is loved the best. The "Story of Patsy" was written here. By the window in a cage chirps a bird who bears the historical name of Patsy. It is a cheerful room, intended to impress upon the children's minds the idea of summer time.

The old idea of neglecting the education of children until their eighth year, when habits are already acquired and evil lessons permanently learned, is exploded. All honor is due to the woman who bore these "good tidings" and messages of love and cheer to the untaught little ones of the far west,—Kate Douglas Wiggin.

It is not possible in the prescribed limits of this article to mention even the names only of the many grand women in the world who are now devoting their life-energies to education. But a glance at the reports of the "Congress of the Representative Women of all Lands," held in Chicago, and beginning May 15, 1893, of which there were seventy-six sessions and over six hundred participants, and which had an aggregate attendance for the week of over one hundred and fifty thousand—a glance at the significant place given to reports on educational matters, and a survey of the names of the eminent women who presented them, gives one a little idea of their number and importance. Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper of San Francisco, president of the International Kindergarten Union, whose address on "The Kindergarten as an Educational Agency, and its Relation to Manual Training," rich with thought and keen in argument, gave a fine tone to the Education Department Congress. Then the address of Miss N. Cropsey, superintendent of primary instruction in the public schools of Indianapolis, on the "Kindergarten and the Primary School," in which she shows in a new light that the salvation of our country is in the new education of the home, the school, and the church. If the plans shown by Sara Louise Oberholtzer of Pennsylvania on "The

Popular Inculcation of Economy," could be put in force, it would seem that public and private waste, so closely allied, would soon be done away with.

Jennie de la M. Lozier, M.D., Sc.D., of New York, upon "Educational Training in its Bearing Upon the Promotion of Social Purity," speaks in her usual incisive manner not difficult to understand, and creates a feeling that every individual must "be up and doing," meeting his responsibility, from which he can never escape.

Perhaps "The Ethical Influence of Woman in Education," by Mrs. Kate Tupper Galpin of California, and the discussion of the paper by Mrs. W. D. Cabell of Washington, D. C., Mrs. Anna Byford Leonard of Illinois, and Frances Stewart Mosher of Michigan, is of greatest interest to most people. No more fitting close to this chapter could be given than a few extracts from Mrs. Galpin's address.

"In many communities the 'schoolma'am' is the leader of the social and intellectual life, and is so quoted, regarded, and bowed down before, that many a lady of the manor might envy the influence accorded to her. 'Teacher said so' is an argument that admits of no reply.

"Not only when engaged in the active work of the schoolroom are teachers a power in the community. Many marry, many enter other occupations, but whatever they do, wherever they go, they are still leaders of thought, directors of the great ethical movements of the day, organizers of clubs, classes, societies, and church activities. Drop from the list of names of prominent women in our country all who have taught and the remaining list will be small indeed, and teaching offers so fine a preparation for motherhood that it is a shortsighted view of life that regrets the brief term of the teacher's work.

"Our government has established public schools not to give every poor boy an opportunity for an education, but to provide for itself worthy citizens. Few children pass beyond the ele-

ıtary schools. Through their superior fitness for the work, past fifty years has seen the elementary schools pass into hands of women ; therefore all the training for citizenship most natives of the United States receive at school they ive at the hands of women. A strange anomaly, that ıen should have proved themselves the fittest trainers for ens and yet be found unworthy of citizenship !

Time was when the first and most important objection d against a woman teacher was that 'she couldn't thrash boys.' The most advanced never dreamed that a school l be controlled without blows, and that through woman's ility to give them effectively would come a more excellent

Women brought to the school the two greatest character- ı needed in child-care—patience, the outgrowth of years mitation, and sympathy, the outgrowth of the natural in- t. They brought, too, the great housekeeping character- ı, love of neatness and order, attention to detail and ›ughness in the doing of little things. As a result we have ın entire change in school management, which makes it ;reat ethical agent it is to-day.

Punctuality, regularity, cleanliness, order, courtesy of ner, are inculcated in all schools worthy the name. The er morals — truthfulness, honesty, justice, honor — are ht through incidents of school life or through discussions e lessons ; there is no virtue the school may not possess, if eacher is true to her calling ; for, paramount to all other ence of the school, is the character of the teacher. What hood needs for its full development is contact with fully loped womanhood, and so I emphasize the grave need for ıul training, broad culture, and the development of the ›lete womanhood of those into whose hands the state in- s its children. A stream can rise no higher than its ce, and the source of the mightiest influences flowing ıgh the schoolroom is the teacher."

SUPREMACY OF LAW.

STRONG FACTOR IN THE PROSPERITY OF NATIONS.

ALL voices from the known universe proclaim the reign of Law. Nothing is exempt from its supremacy. Even Liberty herself is in subjection to the rules of right, and is never so majestic as when most obedient to them. Without the enforcement of law, the most enlightened community is at the mercy of that worst of dictators and tyrants, the mob. The present writer has been twice exposed to the indescribable horrors of such a bedlam broke loose. One of these scenes of maddening tumult was the Draft Riot in New York, when the streets of the city were for three days in possession of lawless multitudes, followed by robbers and murderers. At such a time how cheering is the sight of an armory pouring forth its glittering regiments. And as one looks up towards Heaven for help, the most welcome vision is that of an angel standing above the highest towers, with a drawn sword in his hand stretched over the tumultuous town.

The need of just laws which have for their object the greatest good of the greatest number may be best shown by the miseries which attend their absence. Take for example the inhabitants of Turkey, who are under the absolute control of the Sultan. They have no voice in making such laws as exist, and these laws were dictated, not for the general welfare, but for the gratification of some passion or whim of a tyrant. Neither the Sultan nor any of his public servants is actuated by an enlightened sense of justice or of humanity. The decrees of a *cadi* are

arbitrary and summary. When he has a case to be heard, he places the Koran on his head, presuming that his mind thereby absorbs the sum of its contents relative to the case, and then utters his mandate.

Were the Sultan or his advisers learned in the wise and just laws which all enlightened nations have inherited from the past, the subjects of Turkey might occasionally hope to be treated with equity and fairness. The Czar of Russia likewise reigns with arbitrary power, but though independent of his subjects, he nevertheless is more or less in subjection to the laws which embody the justice and the wisdom of the Greek and the Latin governments. But the subjects of the Sultan, ever at the mercy of freak or impulse, and never safe in person or property, have no powerful motive to accumulate property. It is organized lawlessness which has impoverished some of the most fertile regions of the world. It is by a similar contrast between natural peace and natural war, that we may go on to raise our estimate of the value of law. Let anyone examine the condition of some of the best parts of Europe at the close of the Thirty Years War. The more carefully he itemizes the damage done to all the interests of civilized society, the more highly will he appreciate the happiness attendant on the reign of law.

Take another instance: the deep and widespread misery caused by the French Revolution. Most readers are so forcibly attracted to the tragic events of the Reign of Terror which were acted in the French capital, that they give small attention to what was going forward in the other parts of the nation. All the provinces, except two in the west of France, were overrun by the peasants burning the chateaux. Their principal object in burning these country-seats was to destroy the title-deeds of the lords of the manors, with whom they had long been in litigation. Ultimately these peasants drove many of the nobility out of France, and in order to escape their obligations to the

rest they combined to prevent their emigration, and to send them to the scaffold. Nor should the influence of this revolution on the prosperity of other nations escape our notice. It destroyed everywhere the mutual confidence of all the commercial classes, and it caused such embarrassment and loss in Great Britain that all progress was arrested there for thirty years.

The progress of civilization is marked by successive reforms in civil law. Some of the foremost of these are embodied in the code and pandects of Justinian, the great Greek emperor of the sixth century. It is impossible to estimate the value of the improvements which this sovereign made in the administration of justice and equity. They have exercised a powerful influence on the jurisprudence of all subsequent times. This influence is seen more than two centuries later in the legal reforms instituted by Charlemagne. At the beginning of his reign, this monarch found five conflicting codes in operation in France, and even in the same province and city. The confusion was so general, that often if five men met on a journey, or in an inn, no one of them was familiar with a law in common with any of the others. These codes he revised, made uniform, and rendered less rigorous, and he reduced the penalty on many crimes punishable by death. He forbade private retaliation, and regulated the custom of dueling, which he was unable wholly to abolish. The trial by battle was to be conducted by something like fair play, in obedience to certain fixed laws and in the presence of judges and witnesses. He did not mitigate, however, the horrors of trial by ordeal, which had long and generally been believed to be a proper appeal to the judgment of God. Even Frankish ecclesiastics resorted to the ordeal in civil cases.

During the earlier years of Charlemagne's reign, a dispute arose between the Bishop of Paris and the Abbot of St. Denis as to the proprietorship of lands belonging to a small abbey. Unable to decide this question of right, they agreed to refer it

to what they called the judgment of God. Each party chose a champion who was to stand before the high altar during the celebration of mass, with his arms outstretched in the form of a cross. He who first became weary and changed his position was adjudged to have lost his cause. In the time of Charles the Great, churches and palaces were legalized places of refuge for such as were fleeing from revenge and lawless force. The right of sanctuary was often of great public service, but it had already come to be a refuge for the worst criminals. Charlemagne therefore attempted to guard it from some of the abuses which finally led to its abolition.

The charge of cruelty has been brought against the law by which death was pronounced as the penalty to those Saxons who efused to receive baptism, or afterward relapsed into idolatry. 'his charge has been met by saying that this cruel enactment ormed a part not of his civil but of his martial law. But then ve find in this fact no apology, when we remember that the great 'nglishman, his trusted counselor and friend Alcuin, tried in ain to dissuade him from a course so unchristian and so unwise.

But still we must all admit that Charlemagne was the one reat legal reformer of the middle ages. As such he is now hiefly remembered. When he died his empire fell to the round and crumbled to pieces. But his improvements in the ivil and ecclesiastical laws of the Franks were possessed of a itality which belongs to civilization, and will live till time shall e no more.

Taking advantage of his legal reforms and following his exmple, Napoleon a thousand years later reduced the old statutes f France into a clear, compact, and practicable system, known s the Code Napoleon. In the permanent establishment of an mpire he was as unsuccessful as Charles the Great had been. 'ut he resembles the latter in another and more important oint: his code remains as an imperishable record of what he id to advance the arts of peace.

And curiously enough Napoleon III. is to-day gratefully remembered, not as a new Cæsar, but as the reformer of the laws and administration of Paris. Bad as the French capital is morally, its municipal government is now the admiration of every sojourner. The present writer has resided in many of the most enlightened cities, but of all of them he must say that they would be improved by taking lessons from Louis Napoleon's rules for the government of Paris.

Among the improvements suggested by French and British writers on law, with a view to obtain the average opinion of the whole population as to important measures, is that adopted by the Swiss. It is called the Referendum—that which is to be referred. According to this contrivance the federal constitution of the cantons provides that if fifty thousand Swiss voters demand the revision of the constitution, the question whether it be revised shall be put to the vote of the people of Switzerland, "aye" or "no." Another article enacts that, on petition of thirty citizens, every federal law or decree which is not urgent shall be subject to the Referendum; that is, after the law has been passed by the legislature it shall be put to the popular vote.

The opinions of high authorities are divided on the value of this provision. The late Greek historian, George Grote, Esq., disapproved it in strong terms; the learned professor of law, Sir H. S. Maine, considered it a doubtful experiment for a constitutional monarchy, but it has, he thought, a considerable future before it in democratic governments, especially among those who wish that there should be as little legislation as possible. Mr. Labouchère told the House of Commons, some years ago, that the British people were tired of the deluge of debate and would some day substitute for it the direct consultation of constituents. It is believed that he had not a few facts to support this expectation. Professor A. V. Dicey considers this kind of popular vote as by far the most original creation of the Swiss

democracy. He holds that it has two great advantages: first, it is the best, if not the only possible, check to all ill-considered changes in the fundamental principles of the government; secondly, it tends to sever legislation from party politics. Separating important measures from personal and local influences, it places such measures under the control of a national majority.

Another instance of legal reform is found in the British Court of Chancery. In 1873 this court was consolidated with the other superior courts in the Supreme Court of Judicature. Formerly there were frequent reversals of the decisions of the lower courts by this high court, and the delays attendant on its processes were ridiculed in the novels of Charles Dickens. They placed the litigants in such a fix as to justify the slang phrase "in chancery," signifying any awkward predicament. Special pleading is also now abolished in British courts. Forty years ago no English parties supposed to be directly or indirectly interested in the issue of a cause were permitted to give evidence in the same. To-day all parties are examined.

The example of American lawyers is in one particular warmly recommended by such eminent jurists as Lord Coleridge and Sir Edward Clark: it is to do away with the distinction between the attorney or solicitor who prepares a brief, and the barrister or counselor who uses the brief in pleading at the bar. It is now frankly admitted that this system greatly increases the temptation to sharp practices by dividing the responsibility for them. An attorney may knowingly or through carelessness give instructions to a counselor which may amount to slander, and which the counselor may proclaim in court to the great injury of the accused. As whatever the counselor says in court is privileged—that is, he cannot be called to account for it—the person slandered is without redress. He may indeed be proved innocent at the end of the trial, but his enemies will continue to repeat the slander. The great Joseph Addison

was thus injured for life. The American practice presumes that every lawyer prepares his own brief, and makes him solely responsible for its contents.

Long has it been contended that universal suffrage cannot procure the best laws, concert the best measures, or choose the best representatives; in short, that in politics, as in most other matters, quality and not quantity is the most desirable. The late Thomas Carlyle presents to his readers this idea in many lights, and from every point of view. In partial concession to the advocates of this principle, the Belgians have framed a new electoral law providing that the franchise shall be attached not only to property, but to proved mental capacity also, conferring it on every man who has taken honors at a high school or at a college, on every one who can pass an examination with credit, on every foreman of a workshop or factory. The experiment, however, is at present confined to provincial and commercial elections.

This idea of conferring power, not upon the masses in general, but upon the greatest material and mental strength among the masses, has been thought worthy of the most respectful attention. It serves to protect the rights and privileges of the literary class of subjects, while in times of popular ferment when established authority and the aristocracy are apt to be wildly attacked, it divides the leaders of the enemy, arraying the cultivated leaders against the uneducated leaders of mobs, and causing the former to rally a cool and orderly force for the defense of the king and men of rank and capital.

The Belgians, it seems, are beginning to appreciate, at their true value, artisans and men of inventive genius. As yet the United States is foremost among enlightened nations in the encouragement given to men of new and useful ideas. Its patent laws are avowedly the best in the world; and for the number and utility of inventions it is justly considered in advance of all other peoples. Long ago distinguished beyond all others

for agricultural and mineral wealth, it is now equally distinguished for the inventions that develop that wealth.

Popular prejudice against lawyers in general lessens with the progress of intelligence. Public opinion has decided that the entire profession ought not to be disparaged, because of the pettifoggers and shysters, who are disowned by it. It would now be impossible for a Jack Cade to lead a mob against law offices, and difficult to find a modern man of letters who could approve Jeremy Bentham's tirades against lawyers. This wrong-headed radical records with much satisfaction the fact that a lawyer of his time left at death all his money to support an asylum for fools and lunatics, saying in his will that it was from such he got his fortune, and that for such he would bequeath it.

In spite of old and new pleasantries aimed at the legal profession, it remains adorned by many of the most illustrious names in biography. Lawyers were the framers of our Constitution, now universally considered the best in the world. Alexander Hamilton (the principal author of the "Federalist"), Chief Justice Marshall, Patrick Henry, William Wirt, Daniel Webster, and Abraham Lincoln are held in honor by all men of intelligence. Among the British lawyers Sir Matthew Hale and Edmund Burke stand highest in the esteem of Americans; the former partly because of the influence of his writings on the formation of the character of Washington, the latter partly by reason of his eloquent defense of our republic at a time when the British friends were few.

The fact that lawyers themselves are very slow to go to law to redress their own wrongs is nothing to their discredit. They know from observation the uncertainties attending the most honorably conducted suit, while many of them are so crowded with engagements to their clients as to make needless attention to personal grievances a grave delinquency.

Nothing serves better to raise the moral standing of a lawyer than a reputation for doing his best privately to compose the

differences of intending litigants. The late President Lincoln had this reputation in Illinois, causing him to be universally known as "honest old Abe."

Another thing that enables lawyers to add weight to their character is to keep out of politics. This is especially true of judges, who are sometimes tempted to render such verdicts as will brighten their political prospects, to the wretched sacrifice of justice and equity.

We have observed in our day the career of one lawyer who owed much of his popularity and political influence to his avowedly acting on the precept of the Roman law, never to defend a cause which he knew to be unjust. This man was the late Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen, one of the candidates for the vice-presidency in 1844. His biography is a very instructive volume.

Some eminent names in the legal profession are good examples of the broadening and strengthening effect of large acquirement outside of their legal studies, as Sir Matthew Hale and Lord Henry Brougham. The former knew almost everything that was worth knowing. The exclusive attention to legal studies and practice, as the poet Coleridge remarks, "sharpens the mind indeed, but, like a grinding stone, it narrows while it sharpens."

The reader must pardon the writer for these few counsels of prudence. To add any more might show that he is not himself a very bright example of prudence. In the best of us a good deal of human nature still remains, and that nature cherishes the schoolboy's dislike of instruction. Among the most brutish savages this dislike is sometimes kindled into deadly hate. A European traveler tells us that on a second visit to a very wild tribe in New Zealand, he missed a venerable member whom he met on a former occasion. Questioning the chief as to the welfare of the old man, he dryly replied, "He gave us so much good advice that we put him mercifully to death."

WOMAN IN LAW.

HER ABILITY AND SUCCESS AT THE BAR.

BREVITY, of necessity, is characteristic of the history of the legal education of woman. It was about twenty years after Dr. Blackwell received her diploma at the Medical College at Geneva that permission was given to woman to enter the department of law at Washington University, St. Louis. In 1870 one was admitted to the Iowa bar, and three others entered the Law School of Chicago University. This institution in that year gave Mrs. Ada H. Kepley the degree of Bachelor of Laws, although for two years she was refused permission to practice.

The Iowa University Law School first admitted women in 1872. In 1879 Miss Clara Foltz, having applied to the directors of Hastings College of Law in the University of California for admission as a student, and been refused, received judgment to compel them to admit her.

Now, though comparatively few use the privilege, women are admitted to most law schools, and are practicing at the bar in almost every state in the Union.

If it has been thought strange that a "gentlewoman" should undertake and succeed in the practice of medicine, for which, as is generally admitted, she shows great adaptation, there certainly are grounds for wonderment that the legal profession presents attractions and fascinations for her. The reasoning power, the argumentative faculty, are generally considered to be absent from her mentality, while intuition is prominent,

keen, and quick. Her conclusions are reached not by the roundabout process of argument and logic, but by the "shorter cut" of intuition, by which she quite as often reaches a correct conclusion.

However, some women have manifested a natural taste and aptitude for this profession and some have made a place for themselves in the legal world and hold it undisputed.

Perhaps of widest reputation among these is Mrs. Belva A. Lockwood. She was born in Niagara county, New York, October 24, 1830. Her education was obtained at the district school and academy of her native town. In 1848 she was married to Mr. Uriah H. McNall, and was left a widow with one child in 1853. The next year she entered Geneva College, from which she was graduated in 1857. Entering the ranks of teachers she soon gained prominence as an instructor, and during the civil war was foremost in her vicinity in securing aid for the soldiers. At the close of the war she removed to Washington, where for four years she had charge of Union League Hall. Her marriage to Dr. Ezekiel Lockwood, a Baptist clergyman of Washington, occurred in 1868.

Mrs. Lockwood's study of law began in the National University Law School, and was continued until 1873, when she took the degree of Bachelor of Laws, and was admitted to practice at the bar of the district supreme court. This practice she at once entered upon and still continues. In 1878 she drafted and succeeded in getting through Congress a bill admitting women to practice in the Supreme Court of the United States.

Perhaps her greatest notoriety has been gained from the fact that she received the nomination for president from the party of Equal Rights in 1884, and was re-nominated by the same in 1888. The publicity which this gained for her induced her to enter the lecture field, where she has met with a good measure of success.

Mrs. Myra B. Bradwell was another pioneer in woman's

work in the legal world. This gifted lady was born in Vermont, February 12, 1831, but her home through most of childhood's years was passed in western New York. Her parents then removed to Chicago, which has been her home through the greater part of her life. She was educated at Kenosha and at Elgin; and in the seminary of the latter place was afterwards engaged as teacher. She became the wife of Judge B. Bradwell in 1852. Mrs. Bradwell's study of law began soon under the tutelage of her husband; not with the idea of becoming a practitioner, but because she believed that subsequently she might give him valuable assistance in his business.

The vigorous application she gave to her studies soon created a liking for it and she passed with the highest average possible, but was denied admission because she was a married woman. Nothing daunted, she bent all her energies to remove this legal defect. Her application being refused by the supreme court of the state of Illinois, she sued out a writ of error against the state of Illinois. The decision in this case was also adverse, and she never again renewed her application. However, greatly to her surprise, she afterwards received a certificate of admission, upon the original application, from the very court that had refused her so many years before.

Mrs. Bradwell was the first woman in the United States to apply for admission to the bar; and was also the first to become a member of the Illinois Press Association and of the Illinois State Bar Association, and a few years ago she was admitted to practice in the United States Supreme Court.

Her talent and legal ability were indicated by her management of the *Chicago Legal News*, the first periodical of its kind published in the Western states. She began the publication of this in 1869 and was, until her death in 1894, its editor and manager. A special charter was granted for her paper by the legislature, and, by several acts, its contents were evidence in the courts and a valid medium for publication of legal news.

Patriotic and benevolent in character, she found many ways to give expression to these traits, and during the civil war was very active in the work of those organizations which rendered aid to the soldiers; and for thirty years was a member of the board for the Soldiers' Home. She was also one of the founders of the Girls' Industrial Home in Chicago, and she held the position of chairman of the Committee on Law Reform, at the Woman's Congress.

The report of the census of 1890 represents the number of women lawyers in the United States to be 268; these are practicing in almost every state in the Union. They are not all white women, for Miss Ada Platt, who was lately admitted to the bar in Illinois, is a negro, and is probably the first woman of her race to practice law.

The women who undertake to win a place in the legal profession are apparently endowed with an immense amount of persistence, and moreover are not easily daunted, for scarcely one of these has gained her foothold without considerable struggle.

Mrs. Alice Jordan Blake, a lawyer practicing in Seattle, Washington, is a Michigan woman, and, having won high honors in her home schools, she sought admission to the law classes of Columbia and Harvard, but was rejected by both of them. Yale was kinder to her. She was permitted to study the law course there, without the promised stimulus of a degree. She passed with so much distinction, however, that, contrary to the wishes of President Porter, the faculty of the college met in special session and voted her a degree with full honors.

Mella S. Titus was the first woman admitted to the bar in the state of New York, and Miss Florence H. Dangerfield, who has recently passed an examination before the state board of examiners, is the second woman to win that distinction. She is a graduate of Cornell University and studied law in the University of the City of New York. For three years she was

secretary to Chancellor McCracken, who says that it was she who won him over to the theory that the woman's law class was an excellent addition to the university.

Miss Dangerfield was a clerk in Francis M. Wellman's office when he was assistant district attorney, and she was intrusted with a great deal of the preliminary work in preparing the Lexow committee testimony when Mr. Wellman acted as prosecutor of the police captains before the police board. It was also assigned to her to discover whether the women witnesses had anything pertinent to tell.

Miss Mary Philbrick of Hoboken studied law, and applied for admission to the bar. She was told that the statutes of New Jersey would not allow it. Then she went to Trenton, and got a bill introduced permitting women to practice law if they have the ability and wish so to do. She made a most effective argument for it before the committee, and succeeded in getting it through both houses of the legislature. Miss Philbrick did not rest here, but followed the document to the executive office, and convinced the governor that the right thing for him to do was to sign it. This he did. She has since passed her examination, and is now an attorney-at-law in "good and regular standing" in the state of New Jersey.

Miss Helen Gould, daughter of Jay Gould, is another young woman who has completed the full course of the law school of the University of New York, and won the degree of Bachelor of Laws. Miss Gould has no intention of practicing law; she has simply better prepared herself to manage her vast fortune, believing that a woman endowed with money and brains should use the one for the protection of the other.

Milwaukee, Wisconsin, has an enterprising law firm composed of four women: Mrs. Kate Pier and her three daughters, Kate H., Caroline, and Harriet. At the death of her father, Mrs. Pier was left in charge of his estate. She became very much interested in the solution of the legal questions that

arose, and resolved to turn her attention to the study of law. Her home was in Fond-du-Lac, but she removed her family to Madison, took a house, and thus had a home, while she and her eldest daughter, Kate, pursued their studies at the law school of the State University. They report only kindness shown them by the members of the legal profession, and Miss Laura G. Smith, in writing of them for the *Ladies' Home Journal*, says that once "direct partiality" was manifested. "The young men of the law class were in the habit of making a record of the ages of its members, and registered Mrs. Pier at *twenty-six* and Miss Pier at *eighteen*."

After graduation they returned to Fond-du-Lac, but the next year went to Milwaukee. In September, Mrs. Pier was appointed court commissioner, and is the only woman holding a position of that kind in the United States. Through the efforts of these two ladies, two bills have passed the legislature of Wisconsin, viz., that a married woman is capable of acting as assignee, and that a married woman who is an attorney at law may be a court commissioner. Their practice is general; being mostly corporation, real estate, or probate. Miss Kate usually appears at court, has had a number of cases in the supreme court, and is not considered an unequal adversary. In 1891 the younger daughters finished the law course at the university, and are now associated with their mother and sister. They make a busy firm, and are demonstrating their qualifications to rank with men in the learned and honored profession of law.

There are at least eight women lawyers in the state of Wisconsin. Of these, Mrs. Lavinia Goodale of Janesville was the first to be admitted to its practice. She is a bright, quick-witted woman. Her first suit was won in a justice court, and, the defendants appealing to the circuit court, she won again. When, in 1875, she appeared before the supreme court of the state, asking permission to practice in that court, the motion was denied by the judge on account of her being a woman.

t date, however, she has been admitted, and is now a
l lawyer in her city.

ight of feminine success at Cambridge University,
has been reached by Miss Lilian Tornn, a Cornish girl,
a first class in the Law Tripos.

three years of study on the continent she entered
1890, and in the intercollegiate examinations of the
she was in the first class on each occasion. She is,
d, the first lady who has ever been in Class I. in the
os, and the first to win the place of "double first."

gh the women of Italy have shown their adaptability
e arts and the sciences, few women of that country
sen to enter the professions, owing probably to lack of
ty, or the existing conditions, which are less favorable
n than in other countries. This fact invests the suc-
gnorina Teresina Sabriola with unusual interest.

oung Roman woman is the first woman to obtain the
Doctor of Laws in modern Italy. She is but twenty-
s of age, and is the daughter of Antonio Sabriola,
of philosophy, history, and pedagogy, at the Univer-
ome, from which she received her degree. Her prepa-
the university was made at home, with the instruc-
oth father and mother.

ina Sabriola was only seventeen when she passed the
ary examinations with high honors. Her career at the
y, where she invariably passed her examinations cred-
as proved that Italian women are not intellectually
o those of other countries. The Signorina cannot prac-
in her own country, as women are not admitted to
n Italy, and she will devote her attention for the
o scientific study and investigation.

igh woman's power in the legal world is gaining
t is but slowly. Her reception into the courts as an
has been so recent and so limited, and the entire per-

sonnel of the courts, with this exception, is so wholly made up of men, that her influence there is scarcely perceptible. Perhaps among all the innovations in Edward Bellamy's book, "Looking Backward," the one most important is that which pictures to us a system in which causes where both parties are women are tried before women judges, while those where the litigants are a woman and a man are tried before judges of either sex. There are those who argue that this plan is well adapted for the advancement of women under our present industrial system, and that "while it may not be necessary that in every case where women are litigants only women should be upon the bench and jury, it probably would be better that both sexes be represented even then." There cannot be as rounded, complete, harmonious action in any department of life by men or women alone as there can be by both, and it may be that when the necessity for full and perfect justice is recognized, in that day she will take her place by the side of her brother, endowed with full powers to administer justice. Gradual as the change from her condition of dependence to her present position has been, is it not in the logic of human progress for her to attain equality?

ORIGIN OF MEDICINE.

COURSE OF DEVELOPMENT, SERVICE OF PHYSICIANS.

THERE are two opinions with reference to the origin of medicine. The first we find as a tradition in all ancient records, that medicine is of divine origin, having been originally taught by the gods to men; and as this communication would of course be made to those most intimate with and especially engaged in the service of the superior powers, it is from this point of view natural that we should find the healing art in early times in the hands of the priests and connected with religious ceremonies.

The second opinion is that it arose from experience of the effects of certain foods or injuries, and includes such accounts as those given by Herodotus, Strabo, and Pliny, of a custom in the early days of Egypt, Babylon, and Rome, of taking a sick man into the street or to some public place, where all persons passing by inquired as to the nature of his disease, and gave him the benefit of their personal experience. It is said that all who saw a sick person thus exposed were bound to approach and give him their advice, and, if human nature was then the same that it is now, it is probable that the duty was not neglected, since it was of the nature of a pleasure. It is hardly probable, however, that physicians of some sort should have been totally wanting in such cities as Rome and Babylon; and as a matter of fact we usually find among all nations, including savages, traces of two systems of medicine, one lay, the other sacred.

In the theurgic stage of development serious disease is

supposed to be due to evil spirits or ghosts, or to the vengeance of an offended deity, or to the evil eye ; and the essential remedies are incantations, charms, music and noises of various kinds, propitiatory offerings and prayers, steam baths, hypnotic suggestion, and the removal by suction of the evil spirit, which may be shown in the shape of a bit of bone, shell, or quartz. The most ancient medical treatise which we possess is the Papyrus Ebers, which was written in Egypt, 1552 B. C., and which refers to much more ancient data. It contains various prescriptions for worms, formulæ for cosmetics, etc., and shows some knowledge of the anatomy of the heart and large vessels. The few allusions to medicine found in the Old Testament indicate that the priests were the chief medicine men, but we may infer that there were others from the sarcastic remark about King Asa, who "in his disease sought not to the Lord but to the physicians. And Asa slept with his fathers."

The most important part of the medicine of the Bible is that found in the Levitical legislation with regard to diet, to personal impurity, and to the stamping out of leprosy. Some of these regulations, including the rite of circumcision, were probably due to knowledge derived from Egypt, while others appear to be of Persian origin.

In the poems of Homer (about 1000 B. C.) mention is made of Æsculapius as a well-known physician, and simple dressings for wounds are described ; but four or five centuries later Æsculapius had become a god who had over fifty temples in Greece and Great Greece, and of these those which became especially famous and were most resorted to by the sick were those at Rhodes, Cyrene, Cnidus, and Cos. In the vicinity of these temples there gathered physicians who were not priests, who kept records and handed them down from father to son, the profession being hereditary ; and the summing up of the experience thus gained was finally given in the works of Hippocrates, who was born at Cos about 450 B.C.

The special characteristic of the Hippocratic writings, and that which makes them the first great epoch in the history of medicine, is that they attribute disease, not to spirits or divinities, good or bad, but to climatic influences, impure water, improper food, and other so-called "natural causes"; and they prescribe diet, baths, certain drugs, etc., with no reference to prayers, charms, or incantations of any kind. Only a portion of the so-called "Hippocratic writings" was written by Hippocrates himself, but this portion is well worthy of the high reputation in which it has been held by physicians since his time; and it shows that Greece then possessed an organized brotherhood of skilled physicians whose teachings are the foundation of rational or scientific medicine; but these teachings were based entirely upon observations of the results of Nature's experiments upon sick men, and experimentation upon animals had not yet been thought of.

After the time of Hippocrates the next step in the development of medicine was made at Alexandria about 300 B.C., by careful studies in human anatomy made by Herophilus and Erasistratus and their pupils under the special permission which was then for a short time granted for the dissection of human bodies. This increase in knowledge of the structure of the human body gave rise to some marked improvements in the art of surgery, which are practically summed up in the first treatise on this subject written in Latin which has been preserved to the present day, namely—that of Celsus, who lived about the beginning of the Christian Era. Celsus was not a physician by profession, and his work had little influence for about fifteen hundred years; but it was one of the first medical books issued from the press after the discovery of printing, and for the next two hundred years was of great authority.

The medical author of greatest repute during the Middle Ages was Galen, who wrote in the last half of the second century, A.D., and whose works were the highest medical author-

ity for the next thirteen hundred years. Galen made no great discovery; his recommendations in surgery embody the improvements made by the Alexandrian school, and his directions for the treatment of internal disease are not much of an improvement upon those of Hippocrates; but he gives the foundations of anatomy and physiology, and through these the methods of diagnosis, more completely than any previous writer whose works have been preserved to us. It is evident from his writings that experiments upon living animals to ascertain the functions of certain parts of the body, and especially of the nervous system, had been first made in the Alexandrian schools. From the time of Galen until the end of the fifteenth century, there was very little advance in medicine, which in the greater part of Europe was in the hands of priests and monks or of barbers and bathers.

After the introduction of printing and the rise of the Protestant Reformation, two important steps in advance were made in medicine in the sixteenth century, the first being the establishment of modern descriptive human anatomy by Vesalius, Fallopius, and their successors; the second being the introduction into general practice of remedies chemically prepared, which was largely due to the teachings of Paracelsus and his followers, who made known the results which had been obtained by Arabian and Persian chemists. The seventeenth century is famous in the annals of medicine by reason of the discovery of the circulation of the blood, announced by William Harvey in 1628; this being the first great step in advance in physiology made since the time of Galen. About this time the microscope began to be used in the examination of tissues, and modern histology had its commencement in the work of Malpighi, Ruysch, and Leeuwenhoek. The next step was the obtaining of definite distinct descriptions and records of the results produced in different parts of the body by various forms of disease, and the result was the establishment on a broad foundation of

pathological anatomy by Morgagni, by the publication of his great work in 1761.

While the scientific foundations of medicine were thus being slowly established, some improvements in the art had been made, chiefly in surgery; the most important of these being the use of the ligature to close bleeding vessels in amputations, first described by Ambroise Paré in 1564. Prior to this time the bleeding arteries after amputations had been closed either by pressure, with styptics, or by the application of the red-hot iron, and the result was in most cases fatal. Almost as important as the ligature was the invention of the screw tourniquet by Petit, in the early part of the eighteenth century.

Ipecacuanha was introduced as a remedy in 1672; and cinchona bark in 1640, but in general no great advance in either the diagnosis or treatment of internal diseases was made before the commencement of the present century. Practical hygiene made a marked advance in the eighteenth century in the discovery by Sir George Baker of the cause of a painful and fatal disease known as Devonshire colic, which he traced to the contamination of cider by lead; in the demonstration by Captain Cook of the possibility of preserving seamen from the ravages of scurvy in long voyages by the regular and systematic use of acid fruits; in the work of John Howard in improving the condition of English prisons and preventing such outbreaks of malignant typhus as produced the fatal "black assizes"; in the introduction of inoculation as a means of lessening the fatality of smallpox; and, most important of all, the discovery of the power of vaccination to prevent this dread disease, announced by Edward Jenner in 1798.

The history of the development of medicine down to the end of the eighteenth century, which has been thus briefly outlined, fills many volumes of medical literature, giving an account of the many different systems and theories which have from time to time appeared, flourished a little, and then been for-

gotten, perhaps to be revived a few centuries later under a different name. There were some physicians and surgeons who were famous in their day and place; a considerable body of valuable observations had been collected; some bold and skillful surgical operations had been devised, but, after all, more progress has been made in the art of medicine since 1800 than had been made in all the centuries prior to that date.

This progress has been due in the first place to improvements in diagnosis, of which the most important are the use of auscultation and percussion in distinguishing diseases of the heart and lungs, the use of the clinical thermometer to determine the temperature and the degree of fever, the employment of the ophthalmoscope and of various special instruments for exploring the cavities of the body, the use of chemical and microscopical tests to detect the changes in composition or in structure of the abnormal fluids and tissues of the body, and the employment of bacteriological methods to determine the precise causes of the phenomena observed. The first great step in advance in practical medicine in this century was the discovery of means to distinguish certain forms of specific fever from each other, and in particular to distinguish between typhus and typhoid fever. These two diseases, due to entirely different causes, propagated in very different ways, and requiring different treatment in many respects, were as a rule not distinguished before the publication of the papers of Gerhard of Philadephia in 1837. Another important advance in the same direction was made when the indications to be obtained from daily records of temperature in disease were summed up by Wunderlich in 1868, and physicians began to rely upon the temperature chart in distinguishing certain forms of malarial fever from yellow fevor or typhoid, or from the hectic of pyæmia or tuberculosis.

The publication by Dr. Henry J. Bigelow of Boston, in November, 1846, of a definite account of a method of producing

satisfactory anæsthesia in surgical operations marks an epoch in the history of surgery; and the influence of this discovery upon improvements in methods of diagnosis has been almost as great as it has upon methods of operation, for it makes easy certain methods of exploring the interior of the body, which methods are almost impossible without its aid. Before the days of anæsthetics only a few especially skilled and dexterous surgeons undertook important operations, in which the rapidity of the operation was an important factor in the saving of life; while now almost any physician will deal with such cases, knowing that he can proceed as slowly and carefully as he finds it desirable to do without being impelled to haste by a desire to lessen the agony of the patient.

The full value and importance of anæsthetics in surgery was not seen until antiseptic and aseptic methods in the treatment of wounds were brought into notice by Mr. Lister in 1867–68. These methods were based on the discovery of Pasteur, that putrefaction is a kind of fermentation, caused by the action of certain micro-organisms, and were intended to prevent these micro-organisms from getting into wounds, or to kill them if they had already gained admission, and to do this with the least possible injury to the edges or surfaces of the wound. At first the methods employed were largely empirical, since little was known with regard to the different kinds of micro-organisms which are the chief causes of inflammation, suppuration, and other complications of wounds, or as to their modes of introduction and development; and the preventive methods have been considerably modified since the application of the modes of bacteriological investigation devised by Koch has shown that wounds do not usually become infected through the air, but from the hands of the operator or his assistants or from the instruments or the materials used in dressings. To prevent the entrance of infecting bacteria into the wound made in a surgical operation requires that each step shall be made with as

much care and deliberate thoughtfulness as if the operation were a delicate laboratory experiment, and for this purpose the use of an anæsthetic is in most cases essential.

The results of aseptic and antiseptic methods, combined with anæsthesia and recent methods for preventing hemorrhage, have revolutionized operative surgery within the last twenty-five years. Limbs are saved which formerly would have been amputated, and amputation has been deprived of a considerable part of its dangers; the great cavities of the body are freely explored with comparatively little risk: a kidney, a spleen, or a portion of the stomach or intestine is excised without hesitation if seriously diseased or injured; and thousands of women have been saved from prolonged suffering and speedy death by operations for the removal of abdominal tumors or of diseased internal organs of generation. In the development of the treatment of diseases of the female genital organs, which now constitutes the specialty of Gynæcology, American physicians and surgeons have borne a most prominent part; and the same is the case with regard to operations upon the intestinal canal and for hernia, to intubation of the larynx as a substitute for tracheotomy, and to operations for the removal of tumors from different parts of the body.

What bids fair to be the greatest advance yet made in the development of medicine is the rise and progress of bacteriology during the last twenty years, based on the researches and methods of Pasteur and Koch. Not only has it been discovered that some of the most fatal diseases, such as consumption, diphtheria, typhoid fever, cholera, and Oriental plague are caused by specific bacteria, but we now know that the great majority of all diseases connected with inflammations of internal organs are due to micro-organisms, and this knowledge is exercising a steadily increasing influence upon methods of prevention, of diagnosis, and of treatment of these diseases. It has given a new impetus to systematic co-ordinated efforts

to prevent disease, which is one of the characteristics of the medicine of the nineteenth century, and which, to succeed, must rest upon definite scientific information as to the causes of disease and the means by which these may be avoided or destroyed. The circumstances which have led to the development of practical hygiene in its present form may be summed up as being the English system of registration of vital statistics and the results obtained from it by Dr. Farr: the cholera epidemics since 1849; the Crimean War and the War of Secession; and modern bacteriology. The latest development of bacteriology is in the direction of the treatment of certain specific diseases by indirect products of the bacteria which cause those diseases, as in the so-called antitoxin treatment of diphtheria, the value of which is now fairly established; but as yet all that can be said with regard to other diseases due to microorganisms is that there is a good prospect that physicians will soon have very important additions to their resources in treating a considerable number of the most common and most fatal diseases of the present day.

Another direction in which the development of medicine has been well marked during the last twenty years has been in connection with diseases and injuries of the nervous system, and especially of the brain and spinal cord. This progress has been due in part to careful study of the minute anatomy of the nervous centers and the determining of the connections of the exceedingly complicated system of cells and fibers which constitute it, in part to experiments upon animals to ascertain the precise functions of the different parts, and in part to the collection of records of the results of nature's experiments upon man, in which various organs of the brain have been softened, ruptured, or destroyed. As the result of this study by many different men in different countries, physicians are now beginning to be able to say that certain forms of convulsion, of paralysis, or of spasm, are due to disease or tumor of a particu-

lar part of the brain, and to locate this so precisely as to cut down upon it and, in certain cases, to relieve the trouble.

For many years it has been known by physicians that the various forms of insanity, ranging from mere eccentricities to furious delirium, homicidal and suicidal mania, or imbecility and general paralysis, are manifestations of more or less abnormal structure, or of degeneration and disease of some portion of the brain; and the treatment of the unhappy victims of these forms of disease has been greatly modified and improved within the last seventy years; but it is only quite recently that we have been able to begin to associate certain definite lesions of particular parts of the brain with definite forms of mental disorder; and as yet all that can be said is that these beginnings are full of promise for more precise and useful treatment of some of these cases in the future.

One of the most recent developments in practical medicine is the treatment of a rare disease, myxœdema, and of certain skin diseases, by giving the patient the thyroid glands of animals, either as a food or in the form of an extract. This gland, situated in front of the upper part of the windpipe, is an organ the use of which was unknown but which at times forms the tumor known as goiter, and which it is now certain exercises a powerful influence upon both the physical and mental development of man. There are several other so-called "ductless glands" in the human body, the uses of which are unknown but disorders of which affect the health; and it may be that these diseases will in the future be modified or relieved by an application of the same principles which led to the use of the thyroid in myxœdema.

A marked feature in the development of medicine in the last half of the present century is its tendency to specialism, so that one man devotes himself almost exclusively to the study and treatment of the diseases of a limited part of the body. One of the most progressive of these specialties, i. e., Gynæ-

cology, has been already referred to; another which has also made great progress is that which deals with abnormities and diseases of the eye, or ophthalmology. Through the aid of properly fitted glasses it is safe to say that hundreds of thousands of persons are to-day enjoying good and painless vision, who fifty years ago would have been compelled to greatly restrict the use of their eyes in order to prevent headache and other discomfort.

The present stage of development of the art of medicine is characterized by the application of scientific methods of measuring and recording the actions of different parts of the human body in health and in various forms of disease and injury, and under the influence of different drugs, of various forms of regimen, or of special applications of physical or chemical forces; and also by the application to human physiology, pathology, therapeutics, and hygiene of the results of careful experiments upon the lower animals. One of the best illustrations of this is seen in the use of the blood serum of immunized animals for the treatment of diphtheria, which, as Professor Welch says, is entirely the result of laboratory work, carried on by hundreds of experiments having a definite purpose, and which will lead to the saving of untold thousands of human lives.

The medicine of the present day is also characterized by the rapidity with which all new discoveries, or even suggestions, having a practical bearing upon the prevention or treatment of disease, are made known throughout the civilized world by means of the press and the telegraph and are at once put to the test of trial.

Medical societies, local, state, national, and international, are multiplying and flourishing as never before. Over eight hundred medical journals are now in existence, and the number is increasing every month, and the demand for scientific and accurate information on the part of both the profession and the public becomes more insistent every day.

Great as is the advance which has been already made within the last fifty years, there is a general feeling that it is only preliminary to the increase of knowledge, and corresponding power of prevention or control of abnormal and morbid conditions of the human body, which is coming in the near future. No child of woman born can be freed from the necessity of ultimate physical death, and very few can pass through life without suffering some pain and grief, but there is much unnecessary agony, shortsighted fear, and useless effort which the human race may yet be spared by scientific preventive medicine, which is the medicine of the future.

WOMAN IN MEDICINE.

HER FITNESS AND SUCCESS AS PHYSICIAN.

HE care of the sick has from the earliest antiquity devolved on woman. Divinely appointed to be first the vehicle for human life, she is universally conceded hereafter its guardian.

has been woman's care to remove or alleviate pain, to the course of wasting disease, and were she to leave her n beside the suffering the office of medicine and physician l be greatly hindered.

is strange that for so long she was not allowed to search he wonderful mechanism of the body so largely intrusted care, or to know the nature and qualities of the remedies itted to her use.

r many years, to be a student of these things, or to prac- vith what she had thus acquired, was regarded as un- y and beyond her capacity, and as an invasion of the pre- ives of man. But she would not or could not be kept from omain. Very quietly she made her approaches, and was in gaining a foothold; but now she has ventured into its heart, claiming equal rights, and erecting edifices and in- ions on enduring foundations.

better exhibition of bigotry and conservatism giving way the march of progress can be found than in the advance man in medicine.

is very interesting to glance backward to those days so go, when, according to sacred history, Moses was born,

and find that then women were pursuing the "divine art of healing" and that female obstetricians were known to the Egpytians.

Grecian mythology discloses to us, Hygeia as the goddess of health,—the daughter of Æsculapius, the god of medicine.

Agnodice of Athens, 300 B.C., disguised as a man, attended the schools of medicine forbidden to her sex. Upon the completion of her studies, she continued her disguise and won great reputation and a lucrative practice.

The names of at least three Italian women are connected with the earlier days of the University of Bologna. Dorotea Bocchi was a professor of medicine there in the fifteenth century; Alessandra Gigliani was a student of anatomy there also; and the chair of anatomy at this university was filled, about the middle of the last century, by Anna Mazzolini, a woman who became famous for anatomical research, and was, in consequence, greatly honored by societies and colleges of that day.

Very early in the nineteenth century, the University of Gressen conferred the degree of M. D. upon Frau von Siebold; and her daughter studied in the same university, and at Göttingen, taking her degree in 1817. Obstetrics was the specialty of both, and they are honored, the daughter especially as "one of the first authorities in her special branch of science."

In France, two women, Mme. La Chapelle and her pupil, Mme. Marie Gillain Boivin, particularly the latter, became well known for medical knowledge and skill in the latter part of the last century Mme. Boivin was the inspiration of Chaptal, of Montpellier, in his work of reorganizing hospitals, and was herself superintendent of a maternity hospital in 1801, and was intrusted with the care of a military hospital in 1815.

The first woman who graduated from the University of France was Miss Elizabeth Garrett, now Dr. Garrett-Anderson, a prominent physician in London. From her paper presented at the Woman's Congress, we learn that the movement in sup-

ort of the admission of women to the medical profession began n England in 1850, when Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell of New York, he pioneer of the same movement in the United States, was a tudent for a time in London at Saint Bartholomew's Hospital. Miss Garrett, now Mrs. Anderson, began to study with the intention of gaining an English medical qualification, in 1860, and nade many attempts to get admission into a medical school, but without success. She finally obtained permission from the Apothecaries' Society to get her education privately from teachers in the recognized schools; that was the only examining body willing to admit her to examinations. But she passed the last examination at the Apothecaries' Hall in the fall of 1865, and so was able to register herself as a legally qualified English practitioner. Other ladies attempted to follow her example, but the society refused admittance, until a complete medical course, under the same conditions as laid down for men, was gone through, and, as this could not be gained in England, several English women went abroad and graduated at the University of Zurich.

In 1868 Miss Mary Putnam of New York obtained permission from the French Imperial Government to study in the Paris Medical School, and to pass the examination for the M. D. degree. Miss Garrett applied for permission to enter the same examinations without repeating the course of study at Paris, which she had accomplished at London. This was granted and she took her degree early in 1870, a few months before the graduation of Miss Putnam; to whom, however, Dr. Garrett-Anderson credits all the honor of securing the opening of the university to women.

The futile efforts of Miss Jex-Blake to gain admission, first into the Edinburgh School, and in 1875 into the Medical School of London, resulted in the founding by her and her friends of "The London School of Medicine for Women." The teaching was theoretical only until 1877, when an alliance was formed

between this school and the Royal Free Hospital. Since then the students have had all the benefit of excellent clinical teaching. In the years which have elapsed since 1877 much more rapid progress has been made. Instead of one examining body in all England, prepared to give women a diploma, there are now six; instead of one medical school there are now eight.

To the United States belongs the credit of granting the first medical diploma to a woman, and Miss Elizabeth Blackwell was the woman to receive it. An apparently slight occurrence decided Miss Blackwell to begin the study of medicine, but the pursuit of it proved deeply interesting, and she followed it with thoroughness. Her applications for admission to the medical schools of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston were uniformly refused. Other schools returned the same answer to her request, until at Geneva College, in New York state, the faculty submitted the question to the students, who unanimously voted for her reception. She entered in 1846 and was graduated in 1848. Although treated by her fellow students with consideration, the opposition manifested by the ladies of Geneva was such that during those two years not one would make her acquaintance; common civility was denied her, recognition in the street never granted. Her success in winning the diploma turned the tide in her favor; and before she left the town, after her graduation, a number of ladies called and offered congratulations. As stated previously, Miss Blackwell went to Europe in the same year of her graduation, where the seed was sown which resulted after many years in an abundant harvest. In 1851 she returned and began practice in New York city. Here hindrances and difficulties were experienced which only an indomitable will could overcome. The title had been so misappropriated by others that it was scarcely possible to secure a respectable boarding house. But patience, combined with her excellent testimonials, and soon-proved qualifications, won confidence, co-operation of physicians, and a satisfactory practice.

out the time Miss Blackwell became established in New , her sister Emily began the study in Cincinnati; she also d at Chicago, and was graduated at Cleveland College in ary, 1854. The following years she spent abroad, one in Edinburgh, Paris, and London. Returning in 1856, she d in New York and was associated in practice with Miss beth.

e "New York Infirmary for Women and Children" is the ct of their united thought and effort. This hospital and nsary was the first of its kind and was established in 1857. ject was threefold—a charity for the poor, a resort for table patients desiring special treatment, and particu- a place for practical clinical study for women students. students have availed themselves of its advantages; ands of patients have received prescriptions and care, and inmates of its wards. Now there are similar institutions er cities: one in Philadelphia, where its work began in the New England Hospital in Boston, established in one of its founders being Dr. Marie E. Zakrezewska, a lady, who was connected with the Blackwell sisters in arly years of the Infirmary in New York. In 1865 Dr. Thompson assisted in establishing one in Chicago.

edical colleges for women are now to be found in Phila- ia, New York, Chicago, and Baltimore, and women are tted to the University of Michigan, and to some of the er colleges. Medical women are located in twenty-six s, the majority being in New York, Pennsylvania, and achusetts. In a number of states, women have member- in the state and county societies, and seven have repre- d their societies at the American Medical Association.

rs. Clemence Lozier is another of the pioneers in this pro- on. She was early left an orphan, married at seventeen, widow at twenty-four. Having a natural taste for the of anatomy and physiology she determined to devote

herself to the study of medicine, and did so, to such advantage as to be graduated from the Eclectic College in Syracuse, New York, in 1853. Returning to New York, she at once began regular practice. Her success was remarkable and her practice became very lucrative; her income being equaled by only that of a few of the most eminent practitioners in the city.

One of the most notable achievements of women in recent years has been the successful introduction, not only of medicine, but of the medical profession, among the women of India. Less than a generation ago there was not even one woman physician among all the hundreds of millions of women in Asia. When it is remembered that in most parts of that great country the women of the higher classes are rigidly secluded, and so beyond the reach of ordinary physicians, their deplorable condition can be in some degree realized. The first person to carry intelligent medical relief to the secluded zenana women of India went as a missionary, Miss Clara A. Swain, M.D., in 1869, from the state of New York; she became the pioneer in what has become one of the most interesting movements of modern times. She labored as a missionary for fifteen years, and is now engaged in work as physician to the palace of the Rajah of Khetri. Other women have followed Miss Swain, and after a few years a great step was taken by opening an informal medical school for women; hospitals and dispensaries have been built, and the women of India have thus become heirs to a new source of relief in sickness, and to an honorable avenue to employment in the medical profession.

Dr. Mary P. Eddy was the first woman to receive a diploma from the Imperial Academy of Medicine in Constantinople, and thus opened a way for a new era of woman's medical services in the Turkish empire. She is now located at Sidon, in Syria, as a medical missionary. When Miss Eddy finished her course in medicine in this country, becoming especially proficient as an oculist, she made efforts to be allowed to take examinations

under the Turkish government. But again and again her plans were thwarted, until, in 1894, her persistence prevailed, but with the assurance from the authorities that the process of obtaining the desired degree would be made as difficult as possible. The following is related in connection with the circumstance: "After months of waiting and working, the order came for Dr. Eddy's examinations. The doctors had made a collection of sixty of the hardest questions in every department. She answered all; and those staid embodiments of Oriental conservatism arose, and said, 'Bravo!'"

Of her work she says: "My aim being to reach the women of non-Christian sects mainly, I decided upon itinerating half the year among the villages in the mountains, the other half among the cities along the coast. The number of patients is limited only by my strength. My clinics average forty daily. One sad part of my work is, that I cannot give more time to each place I visit; another is the many who have to be sent away. They sit for hours waiting their turn, coming three or four times before they can get in. They come from distant towns and return without seeing me."

There are now, according to the census of 1890, four thousand five hundred and fifty-five women physicians skillfully and satisfactorily devoting their lives to their work. Nearly every one of these women has earned her diploma with high honors, and the world is the gainer because of these feminine practitioners. Their knowledge is not superficial; as a class they are more painstaking and closer students than many men in the medical profession. In mixed colleges where woman is required to do the same amount of work as man, in dispensaries, in hospital wards, in visiting, she does her full share, and often leads her brother. By and by man in any calling will hold positions of honor and respect, not because he is man, simply; sex will be unthought of, and ability and character will be the prime factors in securing reputation.

While names of a number of women who have gained eminence in this profession have been mentioned in this connection, there is yet a long list who are entitled to a place of honor, but the limits of this article will allow only a few to be given. During the last twenty-five years, women have added valuable contributions to medical literature. Among these are Dr. Sara Post, Dr. Sara McNutt, Dr. Elizabeth Cushier, and Dr. Jeanette Greene. Dr. Mary Dixon Jones of New York says: "A woman, because of her patience and delicate physical organization, is adapted to the minute and long-continued observations necessary to original research," and Dr. Julia Holmes Smith of Chicago, adds, "In the quiet laboratories of many a medical college, some of the best scientific research is being done by women students."

Dr. Annie McCall, at Clapham, south of London, has established a successful maternity charity, consisting of a hospital and outdoor department. All the consultants are women, and all operations are performed by women. Over three thousand one hundred women have been attended by Miss McCall and her assistants, with only one maternal death; which is certainly an excellent record.

Mrs. Marshall, M.D., on Nutting Hill, and Mrs. Stanley Boyd, M.D., in the north of London, are doing a similar successful work in hospital and dispensary. More than one hundred and forty-four women are now upon the British Medical Register, of whom fifty are located in London; others are in China, Australia, or elsewhere abroad.

In the United States, scarcely a city or town but bears on its register the name of one or more lady physicians. Not all become eminent- not all are equal to the great task undertaken; neither do all men who enter the medical profession prove successful; and statistics show that the proportion of women who fail is no greater than that of men who are unsuccessful.

Dr. Mary Harris Thompson, who recently died in Chicago, at the age of sixty-six, was regarded by many as the most emi-

nent female surgeon in the world. She was born on a farm in Washington county, New York. After attending the Fort Edward Institute and the West Poultney Academy, she went to the New England Female Medical School, and afterward to the New York Infirmary for Women and Children, where she worked and studied under Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell. She began the practice of surgery in Chicago in 1863, and has ever since stood among the first in the profession. She was a prominent member of the American Medical Society, and was once elected to the chairmanship of the division on the diseases of children. She was one of the promoters of the Women's Medical College, and founder of the Chicago Hospital for Women and Children.

Dr. Louise Fiske Bryson, a contributor to the *Medical Record*, the *New York Medical Journal*, and the *Journal of Mental and Nervous Diseases*, is one of the most painstaking of physicians; and her timely articles are read by the laity and the medical fraternity with eagerness. To her was given the honor of reading the first paper on grippe before the New York Academy of Medicine in 1890. She is visiting physician to the Workingman's School, and is also instructor at the New York Post-graduate Medical School and Hospital. She is a member of the Barnard Club and of numerous scientific associations.

The first Chinese woman to graduate from an American medical college and the second woman of her race to take an Occidental medical degree is Dr. Hu King Eng. She is said to be a very charming, modest little woman, who has resided nine years in the United States, and has retained her quaint, native dress and Celestial characteristics, and, notwithstanding all the benefit she acknowledges having received in America, still loves her own land best.

While she is a pure blooded Chinese, and is proud of the fact, Dr. Eng was never a heathen, her family having been Christians for two generations. She came to America when quite a young girl, with the determination of becoming a

physician, because she believed as a physician and missionary she could do more effective work for the women of her race than simply as teacher or preacher. Knowing only a few words of English, and desiring a thorough knowledge of that language, she went first to a preparatory school at Delaware, Ohio, where she spent four years ; then went to Philadelphia, and after passing a highly creditable examination was admitted to the Woman's Medical College in that city. She completed a most thorough course in this institution and then took a post-graduate course and dispensing course at the Philadelphia Polyclinic. Here she made a special study of the eye and ear, and also for some time was assistant in that department.

She started on her return early in 1895. She is to be connected with the Woman's Hospital in Foochow, China ; an institution supported by the Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Besides her hospital work, she will endeavor to build up a regular practice as physician among her countrywomen. After being in this country six years, she went home on a visit and was very heartily received by the women of her native place. Sick women came to her in great numbers, and she expects to wield great influence among them as a missionary now, through her ability to aid them as a physician. The Woman's Hospital at Foochow is for women only ; its staff of physicians are all women, and the nurses are all native girls who hope some day to become doctors like the "white women missionaries." Dr. Hu King Eng is the first to attain that distinction.

The other Chinese woman who has graduated from an Occidental medical college is Dr. King, who is now living in Hawaii. So Dr. Hu King Eng will be the only Chinese woman physician with a Western world degree in China.

Dr. Bodley of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, on the occasion of Dr. Eng's graduation, gave a reception in her honor, to which were invited ladies and gentlemen of

wealth and culture, and as an especial guest was invited from England, Dr. Eng's compatriot, Pundita Ramabai.

So closely allied to the work of a physician is that of the nurse, that it appears proper to consider it also in this connection.

The first that is known about trained nurses may be quite fairly assumed to have begun with the mission of noble Florence Nightingale to the sick and wounded soldiers during the Crimean war. From that time until the present, training schools for nurses have been improved and perfected, and to-day they occupy a foremost place in all our hospitals. A visitor to a hospital will observe a number of young women all dressed alike in pretty uniforms, the material of which even is chosen for its antiseptic properties. They move about noiselessly, carefully attending to the wants and needs of the patient. The head nurse, one who has already graduated, is able to instruct those under her charge. A great responsibility rests upon her; she makes the rounds with the doctor, and is responsible for the enforcement of his orders.

None but the fairly educated and cultivated should enter the profession; indeed a good education is a prime necessity, for lectures must be attended, notes taken and written out, text-books studied, and preparations made for the monthly or quarterly examinations. Other requirements are such that only patience and a spirit of self-sacrifice will enable one to succeed. While many women have taken up the profession as a means of livelihood, others have done so to prepare themselves for philanthropic occupation. Indeed, all work, successfully pursued, must be done for its own sake, not merely as a means of gain. Nursing, from its nature, must be governed by philanthropy, or it will fail. The nurse must have intellectual interest in her work, but she must also have self-denial and single hearted devotion to her duty.

Japanese girls who have come to this country to receive training for this profession prove exceedingly capable; they are

quick to comprehend, unselfish, untiring, and absolutely truthful. Two who have recently finished a two years' course, and one year of post-graduate work at the Chicago Baptist Hospital, have been very successful. Miss Natsu Sakaki and Miss Hisu Nagano returned to Tokio in July, 1895, to open a hospital in that city. Both are actuated by philanthropic motives. Miss Sakaki is twenty-four years old, and is a daughter of a member of the Japanese parliament, who is very wealthy: she herself appears a thorough aristocrat. Miss Nagano is the only daughter of a Japanese merchant. The hospital in Tokio, which these ladies expect to manage, will be built with Miss Sakaki's money, for she is wealthy in her own right.

The profession or calling is a noble one: the trained nurse is the trusted ally of the medical attendant, and it is often due to her care and watchfulness that the sick and suffering are restored to health, and of her it can truly be said: —

> "When pain and anguish wring the brow
> A ministering angel thou."

Women physicians and women dentists work harmoniously together. Dentistry is recognized as a specialty of medicine, and, as might be expected, practitioners in each profession can and do help those in the other. At the World's Dental Congress at Chicago in 1893, the significant and important feature was the official recognition given to the coequal professional status of men and women practitioners of dentistry. No distinction was made on the basis of sex; places were provided upon the list both of essayists and of clinicians in the operative and mechanical departments.

Women dentists have grown to be such a large body that official recognition was not only possible but necessary. Reference to the latest census bulletin dealing with the occupations of the people discloses the fact that there are in the United States three hundred and thirty-seven women dentists; so it is well that whatever of prejudice may have existed regarding the

fitness of women for dental practice has been so far overcome that, in a world's meeting of dentists, sex was not a factor of one's professional standing. The door is thrown wide open, and woman is bidden to enter.

The Women's Dental Association of the United States was formed in 1892, and the National Association in 1893, on March 4th. Dr. Mary H. Stillwell was elected the president, Dr. Eliza Yerkes recording secretary, and Dr. Annie T. Focht corresponding secretary. Vice-presidents were chosen from each state represented.

Madame Tiburtius Hirschfield of Berlin, Germany, is credited with being the first woman dentist graduate. Illinois has three dental colleges that admit women as students. Chicago has eight or ten women practitioners, Dr. Hattie E. Lawrence and Dr. Emma L. Benham being two who have won fine, enviable positions in society as well as in practice.

Boston Dental College admits women. Dr. Annie Felton Reynolds is a prominent dentist in Boston ; she bears the title of Doctor of Dental Surgery. At the World's Congress she presented a paper which was well received on "Adenoid Growths and other Diseases Incident to Primary Dentition." Dr. Frances Hoopes, Baltimore, Maryland, Dr. Jennie H. Gallup of Bristol, Rhode Island, Dr. May Clio Smith of Wisconsin, Dr. Kate C. Moody of California, Dr. Helen D. Searle, Kansas City, are among the enterprising members of this profession. An item in the *Dental Cosmos* is to this effect : Women dentists have become so popular in London that a scholarship has been founded for assisting women without means in the study of that profession. While a great many women are in foreign countries as medical missionaries, Dr. Jennie M. Taylor is the first person to go to a foreign land as a dental missionary. She is the daughter of the Rev. A. E. Taylor, a Methodist clergyman of Martinsville, Pennsylvania, and is working in Africa as a missionary and dentist.

PROGRESS IN RELIGION.

WONDERFUL INFLUENCE IN CIVILIZING NATIONS.

THE reverent goodness of heart, sweetness of disposi tion, and reconciliation with God which mark a relig ious person, do not change with time, place, or creed Custom, learning, peace, war, occupation, sex, an nationality make no change in the moral and religious qual ties of a soul. Truth is truth, goodness is goodness, anywher and in any age, but there has been great progress in the e pression of religious life, and in the evangelization of th world. The apostles were as true in all that makes a godl character as are the most saintly Christians of to-day ; but th rude, uncultured, warlike times contracted their influenc and their heroic martyrdom was consequently unappreciate The people made a great advance in the understanding divine things, from Moses to Christ, but they have made a muc greater progress since His appearance.

All nations have developed wonderfully in the moral qual ties of their religious expression in rites and charities, but th Christian world has accomplished marvelous things throug the labors of the priesthood and ministry. The apostles foun no ready-made church forms when they broke away from th Jewish sacrifices. The customs of the synagogue were bu little help anywhere, and often a sad hindrance. They wer obliged to blaze a new path with rude instruments and arous men's consciences by forms and addresses which seem now t

be rude, uncouth, and inadequate. They made up in dying what they could not accomplish in living. Martyrdom in the presence of a Roman multitude was not in the ritual of the church and has not been inserted in the prayer book at any time. But those heroic acts and words among the wild beasts in the arena, or amid the hissing flames at the holocaust were sermons adapted to the bloody age, and made the world better at each terrible service. The Apostolic Age made use of any instrument which would lead men to worship God, and they were obliged to recognize the character of the people, their environment, and their idolatrous prejudices, in making up for each occasion an order of worship. There was no unity in form of worship, but a necessary unity of spirit and purpose in their attempt to make bad men good. How primitive was the music when any choir was permitted to intone! How devoid of classic grace and rhetorical form were many of their addresses! How varied the audiences and how riotous and blasphemous the excited debaters! How crude the sanctuary accommodations, with the ground for sittings, a box for a pulpit, and a dust-worn traveling blouse for vestments! Such was the church when Peter, Paul, John, Simeon, Ignatius, Justin, Polycarp, and Origen preached the gospel. Immediately following them came the hard battles with superstition, Grecian philosophy, and Roman atheism. Clement of Rome, Irenæus of Gaul, Cyprian of Carthage, Lawrence of Italy, Blandina the maiden, Perpetua the martyr mother, all lived in a fearful age, and unintentionally wove into their religion some of the purest but unscriptural superstition of the rude age.

As a traveler rises into purer air as he climbs upward from the shaded valley and enters the chill of malaria again as he descends into the valley on the other side the range, so the ministry arose about the fourth century to a most sublime height, where Chrysostom, Ulfilas, Spiridion, Athanasius, Ambrose, Jerome, and Augustine stood, to descend, however, into the for-

mal, ritualistic governmental church of mediæval times. The preachers were many of them still heroic and chafed sadly under the tyranny of the church ruled by iron hands, but they still did the best they knew to bring the world to a Christlikeness. Patrick in Ireland, Columba in Scotland, Aidan of Britain, Remy of France, Boniface of Germany, Cyril of Slavonia, Anselm of England, Hildegard the eloquent woman preacher of Bingen, Thomas Aquinas, Waldo, Thomas à Kempis, Wickliffe, and Huss were all trumpets of warning to the wicked and horns of encouragement to the good, which may never be outdone. The Roman and the Greek churches had the misfortune of being led into the too secular authority of state churches, but above the wars for sect, and the fires built for heretics, there stand out noble preachers of the real Christ, pure as the light, valiant as Paul, eloquent as the tongues of angels, and lovely in self-sacrifice and sweetness of character beyond the portrayal of language. Yet on the whole the Christian age was dark or lurid for five hundred years. The ministry served Christ a little and obeyed man much.

With the advent of Luther, Melanchthon, John Brentz, Ursinus, Zwingli, Œcolampadius, Farel, Calvin, Beza, Renata, Cranmer, Hooper, Anne Askew, Patrick Hamilton, Knox, and Wishart, the ministry of both the Protestant and Roman church returned hurriedly to the apostolic plainness, and brought the gospel down to the common language and common sense of the common people.

Building on that safe foundation, and greatly increasing the efficiency of the pulpit's influence, came Wesley with holy zeal, Wilberforce with his practical system, Elizabeth Fry with her social reforms, Brewster with his statesmanship, Jonathan Edwards with his philippics against sin, Witherspoon with his Scottish determination, Muhlenberg with his liberal German heart, and Manning, the eloquent founder of Brown University in the free state of Roger Williams.

The period which contains the story most interesting, and e lessons most important, for the American reader, is bounded our national life. The world's history is a field too large for r study here; but the religious advance of the United States the century and a quarter of its history is a fascinating eme. We naturally reverence the fathers of the American urch, and it is a fitting tribute of great and noble men, but e need also to remember that the farther a man is away from in time or distance, the greater the danger of our overestiating him. This statement involves the reverse truth that e nearer a man is to us the smaller he appears.

It sounds half sacrilegious to say that there are greater men w preaching in the church of the United Brethren than the ble Otterbein, more eloquent men in the Methodist church an Whitefield or Asbury, mightier men in the Presbyterian urch now than Dickinson or Makemie, more influential men the Baptist church than Rogers, more wisely consecrated en in the Catholic church than Baltimore or John Carroll; yet e calm observer of the growth of religious life in the nation ust reach that conclusion. The ministry has kept in the lead f our advancing civilization, and has held a strong grasp on e wild steeds of a new form of national freedom. Through the nparalleled liberty of thought and expression, with the rostrum estricted only in the advocacy of crime and immorality, and a niversal circulation of the press enjoying a liberty even unto cense, the people have been divided and sub-divided into sects nd societies, until nearly every man among the millions has a rm of religious expression peculiarly adapted to his individual ste and need.

Each denomination, inclusive of the conservative Episcoal church, and the Catholic church so much hampered by ncient councils, expresses within its own lines a variety of hurch life and an individual freedom from church custom hich are often confusing to the observer. It is almost a real-

ization of the glorious day, so sadly predicted by the gloomy heretic burner, that soon "each man will insist on having a denomination of his own." Amid all this variety and freedom of choice, from the silent Quaker to the band of the Salvation Army, and from the simplicity, with no little rudeness, of the Baptist denominations to the stately and dignified processional of the Roman or High Church cathedrals, there is an almost infinite opportunity for the exercise of choice. This gives Divine love the whole field; no iron hand of force to crush the conscience, but every man goes to God in the best way for his own soul's good.

Religious life being a state of soul or a condition of spiritual character, the way which is best adapted to the soul seeking it is the best method for that soul to adopt. The ignorant immigrant from Hungary and the cultured philosopher from Leipsic or Edinburgh need to express their feelings and thoughts differently, and it will require quite different ceremonies or sermons to awaken their religious emotions. But in this blessed land of liberty, Jew and Gentile, Greek and Roman, Mohammedan and Buddhist, speak freely and worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences. What a figure of Liberty Enlightening the World this nation presents!

This wonderful progress may be largely accredited to the great leaders of the American ministry. Of course the free speech of the infidel, the theosophist, and the agnostic has helped the cause of true Christianity greatly, by driving the believers out of superstition or bigotry on to the solid rock of spiritual Christ, whose saving power is not limited by church boundaries, and whose love is not confined to the righteous. But even that privilege which the boasting free-thinker exercises so loudly was secured for him by the large hearted preachers who led in the formation of our institutions and laws.

The principles of Christianity have been so fully recognized

in our statutes and in the decisions of our courts, and have become such an integral part of business precepts and social ethics, that the church seems to be weakening for lack of strong and respectable opposition. The Catholics, the High Church party, and the Salvation Army still receive some persecution, which is vastly helpful to them; but as a rule the churches have too little opposition now to arouse the sympathy of the people and command the impassioned adherence of strong disciples of fair play. This condition of seeming apathy, however, is the strongest evidence of progress, and is a trophy, like a tattered battle flag hanging peacefully in the rotunda of a state capitol, of a great victory won. The American nation is a Christian nation in principles and in spirit. That is a mighty victory. Who led the battalions for God and the right? Who routed ignorance, idolatry, barbarism, slavery, and religious persecution? The great preachers of the century.

The state of Pennsylvania, the home of those sweet spirited descendants of William Penn, echoes still in common schools, Sunday-schools, university, and commerce, the liberal and godly principles taught by that devoted founder of the Episcopalian church at Philadelphia with the three churches which adhered to the Church of England. Of him the great poet Wordsworth wrote:—

> "O saintly White!
> Patriarch of a wide spreading family,
> Remotest lands and unborn time shall turn—
> Whether they would restore or build—to thee
> As one who rightly taught how zeal should burn,
> As one who drew from out Faith's holiest urn
> The purest stream of patient Energy!"

Benjamin Franklin had less influence on his state and its varied society than had Bishop White.

Jacob Albright was such a lover of religious liberty that he

founded the "Evangelical Association" as an outlet for r
ious fervor and faithful worship which he could not fin
pressed in any of the existing denominations. Robert Do
of the Cumberland Presbyterian, Lyman Beecher of the
School Presbyterian, Alexander Campbell of the Disciple
Christ, and John Mason Peck of the Baptist church,
valiant soldiers of the cause of freedom, and live far w
lives than the limits of those denominations. But wha
inspiring suggestiveness there will always be for America
the mention of that Congregational master builder, Tim
Dwight, the gifted, Christlike president of Yale! Differir
radically from Theodore Parker and Hosea Ballou, he w
like those prolific sources of fresh religious thought an
fluence that his language is half revealed in the unconsc
expressions of those great minds which, after all, ran so ne
in the same channel. Americans cannot cross off the
which tells of the most potent influences which made Am
what it is, the shining names of John Vanderkemp, C
tian Schwartz, David Zeisberger, Albert Barnes, Fr
Wayland, Archibald Alexander, Robert Morrison, Adon
Judson, or Charles Hodge. The Pleiades will always shine
Ursa Major cannot be crossed off the heavens, as a be
light forever to the fugitive slave. Those preachers, like
Master, cannot be hid.

But a careful consideration of their merits and holy
cannot convince the thinker that progress stopped with t
Indeed, the sighs of living mourners are still heard abou
graves of some of the greatest preachers of all history. E
Waldo Emerson, the eccentric philosopher and represent
of a new school of mind-religion, stepped forward into a li
ture which a hundred years from now will be regard
classic. As the years decrease sectarian prejudices, an
men more and more forget the bitterness of partisan con
the higher will shine in the ranks of the world's brother

the name of Henry Ward Beecher. The cool judgment of the impartial student of his life now already sees in him a martyr spirit and a love for mankind which was close to the sublime. A bold warrior arouses bold enemies. Beecher was not sparing of his blows against wrong, hence he was vilified unjustly, lied about most outrageously, as were Wesley, Washington, and Carey.

But the grave has hushed the persecutor and the blackmailer, and now the good man, the generous friend of the poor, the liberator of the slave, and the conscientious disciple of Christ comes out of the cloud one of the noblest figures in American history.

What a romance of venturous deeds his biography must be! The scene at the wharf in Cincinnati when the loading of that weeping cargo of slaves for the New Orleans auction awakened his tongue to its first oratory; the tableau which he presented as on his pulpit he auctioneered off to his congregation the trembling slaves beside him that they might be legally purchased and given their liberty; the picture of Mr. Beecher's excited interview with Abraham Lincoln just before the battle of Antietam, when the President promised to issue the Emancipation Proclamation if General Lee was driven back to Virginia by General McClellan; the panorama of the murderous crowd of wild haters of America who crowded the halls of Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, to hoot him down, raise a riot, and "kill the bedeviled abolitionist,"—are all blood-thrilling acts in the world's history which no novelistic genius could approach in romance. His sermons on slavery, his orations in England, which saved the Union, his eloquent address at Fort Sumter when the flag was restored in 1865, his funeral oration on Abraham Lincoln, and his plea for a closer Christian brotherhood among all denominations, take the foremost rank in the libraries of the best and highest American literature.

"I pray thee then
Write me as one who loves his fellow men,"

can now be safely written of him.

Yet neither religious fraternity, nor patriotism, nor love fc the lowly, died with Henry Ward Beecher. He had his associate in the noble gospel of freedom and love. He and those of hi generation have fit successors in the field now, and never di the church of Christ have so great an influence in society, bus ness, and politics as it does to-day. The great divisions of th Protestant church in America, known as the Methodist Episco pal and the Presbyterian, never had in all their remarkabl history such strong men, able orators, statesmanlike organizer and great intellectual scholarship as they enjoy to-day. An nearly every other denomination has men who, like Archbisho Ryan and Archbishop Ireland, live ahead of their time an chafe as they wait for the slow movements of the great bod of followers.

The latest mark of great progress among the ministers of th land is in the greatly increased interest now taken by them i the education of the ignorant, the healing of the sick, the eleva tion of society in morals and ambition, the alleviation of th poor, the opposition to persecution, and in a love for the heathe brothers in the family of man. The progress of the age has le them to the safe conclusion that a religion which does n change the intrinsic character of a bad man, or does not pr serve the purity and honor in the disposition of a good man, i a worthless sham. The ministers now believe in faith wit works, and works with faith; and now, under their irresistibl influence, schools, academies, seminaries, colleges, univers ties, hospitals, dispensaries, nursery homes, schools for nurse medical missionaries, and business undertakings for furnishin profitable employment are found in every city and nearly ever village. Homes are cleaner, morals are purer, childhood i

safer, the community is in less danger of wrong, business more prosperous, the Bible more regarded, and the soul's interests more sought in nearly every neighborhood. The newspapers publish their sermons, the politicians fear their latent power, the church members find that worship in these days is not sleeping in the pew, nor saying so many prayers a week, but is shown in downright helpfulness to their fellow men, servants of man for Christ's sake. All denominations honor the evangelists like Dwight Moody, reformers like Dr. Parkhurst, orators like Dr. Talmage, scholars like Dr. Schaff, and leaders like Dr. Harper. In the sweep of progress we are forgetting to magnify sect, but are greatly concentrating on a practical heart Christianity which shows its love for God in deeds of kindness to the least of these his brethren.

WOMAN IN CHRISTIAN WORK.

A POWERFUL FACTOR IN SPREADING THE GOSPEL.

FROM the beginning of the Christian era down through the ages, to the present time, woman has been one of the most powerful factors in the spread and growth of the gospel of Christ.

With the patriarchs, woman had her part for good or ill. It was a mother's love and a woman's wit that rescued Moses from the cruel hand of Pharaoh and thus preserved to the Hebrew nation a leader, and to the nations of the world a lawmaker. It was Miriam who, when the hosts of Israel were fainting, with a song gave fresh inspiration, which brought courage and conquest. Deborah, whom Coleridge calls "the Hebrew Boadicea," and whose chant of victory he declares is "the perfect lyric of the world," was made judge of Israel and became the military leader of her people. The prayers of Hannah gave her nation an inspired leader, and Queen Esther was both the savior and avenger of her people.

In the earthly life of the Christ, woman had her ministry, both to shelter the years of growth and to furnish rest at Bethany. Through woman's wrongs, her loyalty, and her sorrows, Christ taught the world the most sublime lesson of sympathy, unselfishness, and charity.

From the very first of the Christian dispensation women spoke their religious convictions as plainly as did the Jewish women before them. What a gracious group of Marys sur-

ound her who was "blessed among women"! A message was iven Elizabeth to deliver and to Anna a prophecy. There were Martha and Lois and Eunice, "Tryphena and Tryphosa, and he beloved Persis," Phœbe, Priscilla, and Lydia, who shall say hat these were not all equal stewards with their brethren of God's wonderful grace?

Men were sent forth to preach the gospel, and the faithful, oyal, and believing woman whom the angel met at the empty epulcher was also commanded, authorized, to "go quickly and ell his disciples that he is risen from the dead, and goeth before you."

Gifted with a fine spiritual insight by which women recognize the authority of Christ, it should not be thought strange hat the history of the Christian church is brightened by the deeds and heroism and self-sacrifice freely performed "in His name."

Woman's intuitive power has enabled her to reach out in the work of winning souls, and, now that she is learning to reason, the time is at hand when the customs of the past will not hold in questions of ministry any more than in other calls in life. Mean while let us see what has been done already by her in the theological field.

From an address by Rev. Florence E. Kollock of California, as minister in the Universalist church, on "Woman in the Pulpit," we gather the following summary of facts in reference to the position of the various religious bodies in regard to the indorsement of women for the work of the church.

In the year 1856 the Universalist denomination at Canton, New York, founded a college of letters and arts, in connection with a divinity school, known as St. Lawrence University. The doors of this institution were thrown open to men and women on equal terms. Olympia Brown was the first woman to enter the theological department. She entered in 1861, was graduated in 1863, and was regularly ordained to the Christian

ministry. Since the founding of this university women have been regularly graduated after pursuing the full course of study.

In 1881 the Ryder Divinity School, at Galesburg, Illinois, connected with Lombard University, was opened to men and women on equal terms, and has had from one to three women students every year.

In September, 1892, Tufts College near Boston opened its doors to women and three young women immediately availed themselves of the opportunity. As a result of this liberal policy the Universalist Register for 1895 contains the names of thirty-six women, twenty-seven of whom are regularly ordained to the Christian ministry, while the remaining are licensed to preach by the ecclesiastical authority of the church, and will be entitled to full ordination when their probation of two years as licentiates expires.

The Unitarians were the next to welcome women to their theological schools, and the Meadville, Pennsylvania, school was opened to them in the year 1868. Up to the present time the whole number admitted is twenty-one. Six of these graduated from the full course, the others taking special work. Manchester College, at Oxford, England, is open to women, and in the first year received three American women to its lectures, two Unitarians and one Universalist. The year book of the Unitarian church contains the names of nineteen ministerial women. Mrs. Kollock says the demand for them in both the Universalist and the Unitarian denominations far exceeds the supply.

The well-known college at Hillsdale, Michigan, belonging to the Freewill Baptists, was founded in 1855. Its charter provides that "all persons, regardless of sex, color, or nationality, shall be entitled to all its advantages." The theological department of this school was opened in 1878 and from the first admitted women on equal terms with men. During these years more than twenty women have pursued the prescribed course

study, at least in part, while six have taken the full course d received the degree of Bachelor of Divinity. The theolog- l seminary at Lewiston, Maine, in connection with Bates llege is also open to women. In this denomination twelve men are in full ordination, and fourteen are licensed as lay eachers.

Women have been admitted to the divinity school of the iversity of Chicago, the prominent educational institution the Baptist denomination, for at least twenty-five years. ey are admitted to all classes, on equal terms with men; t the calendar says, "They receive no encouragement to ter upon the work of public preaching, but on the con- ary are distinctly taught that the New Testament nowhere cognizes the ordination of women to the Christian pastor- e." So the eight or ten women who have matriculated in is school are probably preparing for work in the various ission fields, or, as Mrs. Kollock tersely says, for *pagan* pas- rates.

Among the Congregationalists we find at least twelve omen enjoying the full ecclesiastical rights and privilege of rdination. In 1890 the great theological school at Hartford as opened to women students, and a number improved the pportunity thus afforded. Oberlin College, in compliance ith the terms of its charter, opened its doors to both sexes. ntoinette Brown Blackwell was a graduate from this institu- ion in 1849, and received ordination in 1853, from a Congrega- onal church in South Butler, Wayne Co., New York.

The Presbyterians ordain no women to the ministry, and yet, a matter of fact, women do sometimes stand in Presbyterian lpits. A number of years ago Rev. Doctor Cuyler was taken task by his Presbytery, because he allowed Miss Sarah niley to interpret scripture from his pulpit. But Mrs. Balling- n Booth has since occupied the same pulpit and made her quent plea for the poor and degraded. Other women have

spoken from the same pulpit to thousands of listeners, and the suspicion has been aroused concerning the pastor's orthodoxy.

Among the various bodies of Methodists, the Wesleyans in October, 1891, struck from their church discipline the clause prohibiting women from receiving ordination in that body. The Protestant and Primitive Methodists also have ordained women. The theological schools of the Methodist Episcopal church have been educating women, accepting their money and their time; but the General Conference has refused to admit them as members of its body, or to equip them more perfectly for the work for which their schools were preparing them. There are numbers of thoughtful and scholarly expounders of the Holy Scriptures; there are faithful and devoted missionaries both at home and in the foreign field; there are convincing and earnest exhorters among her daughters, who have proved their fitness for the work of the ministry, but they wait yet for the General Conference to acknowledge the fact.

This interesting fact is vouched for by the secretary of the Women's Ministerial Conference: To the United Brethren belongs the honor of having ordained the first woman to the Christian ministry. The Rev. Lydia Sexton of Seattle, Washington, was ordained by that denomination in 1851, two years prior to the ordination of Antoinette Brown Blackwell. Mrs. Sexton was in active service until the late years, failing eyesight compelling her to withdraw from active work.

Among the Friends, women take the same rank as men: it is reported that more than two hundred and fifty women are enrolled as accredited speakers of this sect.

The census of 1890 reports one thousand, two hundred and thirty-five women preachers: of this number, comparatively few, as has been seen, are regularly ordained to the ministry. Their labor as preachers and evangelists is very acceptable and productive of good.

Perhaps as widely known as any is the Rev. Anna Shaw of

ington, D. C. From the report of an interview with her ren by Emma Playter Seabury, in a number of the *Chau-an*, the following is condensed. She is a woman of me-height, slightly inclined to *embonpoint*, with an intelligent keen, sparkling dark eyes that gleam with mirth or flash scorn emphasizing every utterance, heavy, arching eye-s, and hair that mingling of black and gray that softens eatures, which are regular, and an air of methodical, ess-like activity distinguishes her from the woman of soci-r the domestic woman of culture.

e was born in England about forty-five years ago, and to America when three years old. "We were early pio-in Michigan. I was a delicate child, and my earliest recol-ns are of lying on the bed in the old log house and read-e New York *Independent*, learning it by heart, page after The walls were covered with it, and, instead of impossi-oses and vines, the curves and angles that distract the rn invalid, I had those newspaper columns. It was my education, comforting me through the long, snowy win-when schools, in my case, were impossible."

e was not domestic in her tastes and with a book for her anion would shirk every household task possible. On one occasion when ten years of age she was roused by the s of her father, who said: "Anna, I am ashamed of you; are a disgrace to the family, you always have been, you ys will be. You have never done anything, you never will. not know what to do with you."

e felt this humiliation and scorn, and stamping her foot defiantly, "I shall live to go through college and be worth usand dollars." After this her family title was the "col-graduate." But she was awakened; began in earnest to y; at fifteen took a country school and taught it success-for three years. Then her father said he would send her llege and help her through. Her father was a Unitarian

of the broadest cult, but she was sent to a Methodist college, because it was nearer home. Here she was converted and filled with a determination to preach the gospel. She preached her first sermon with a feeling that she was battling all the traditions behind and around her, as well as far in the future.

The news of this new departure was a great blow to the father, and when Anna went home he told her, she could have her choice, "to give up her college course or this fanaticism," and gave her the night in which to decide the matter. In the morning she said she should do neither. She went on with her course and with her preaching. In all the struggle she had no help. She was graduated, went to Boston, took a course of lectures in medicine, was graduated in theology also, and says, "I came out with a black silk dress at commencement, out of debt, and with five dollars in my pocket." But the struggle was hard; "I was very proud, yet was always out of fashion. When dresses were cut long and straight, mine were short and bias, and *vice versa*. I made a good deal of money out of the rich, lazy girls, coaching them for examination; I lectured, preached, and the last year had a church and a fixed salary." She conquered the world around her, but her family remained inflexible. Finally, while on a visit to a brother in Vermont, she was invited to preach in the town, and accepted. Her sister was one of the audience. Anna says: "I was inspired to preach that sermon, and I won my sister completely. From that hour she never missed an opportunity to hear me preach and my dear old father in his old age would walk twenty miles to hear me."

After repeated importunity to do so, she gave up her church for equal suffrage work and finds greater opportunities for good in this work in the interest of right and reform. Her summer cottage is at Cape Cod, and her winter home is in Washington. Those who follow this pioneer in the great work of the ministry have reason to bless her pluck, energy, and devotion.

Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, a Presbyterian lady, who a number of

years ago was tried for heresy and acquitted, whose home is in San Francisco, is a noted expounder of the Bible. She is now the president of the International Kindergarten Union and particularly interested in the care of the ill born and worse nurtured children of her city. Men and women of high character and rare thoughtfulness gather to hear her expositions of the gospel of love. One who was present at one of these meetings says: "She entered quietly, laid aside her cloak, revealing a fragile but symmetric figure, somewhat above the medium height, simply attired in black, with pose and movement altogether graceful, perfectly self-possessed, but not in the least self-assertive. A sweet, untroubled brow, soft brown hair chastened with a tinge of silver before its time; blue eyes, large, bright, and loving; nose of the noblest Roman, a mouth firm, yet delicate, full of the smiles that follow tears." Her method is a sort of colloquy, —brief, comprehensive, passing rapidly from point to point, with no effort at rhetorical effect—all fresh, simple, and earnest, giving the nutritious essence of the text.

The *Independent* and other leading journals have in Mrs. Cooper a valued contributor; and she is justly counted among the best types of America's representative women.

Mary T. Lathrop was one of the foremost evangelists in the Methodist church. God called her to preach the gospel, and she knew the "Woe is me if I preach not": knew it with the same undoubting faith with which she knew that she was born from above. Of that occurrence, which was at the early age of ten years, she says: "I never for a moment doubted my conversion, and could set my foot on almost the identical plank where it took place on my way to school. I *knew* it, and, whatever else of doubt has assailed me, that one fact has remained as the adamant foundation upon which to build a Christian life." Her labors met with wonderful success, for she was most unselfishly devoted to all good work for the uplifting of humanity.

Mrs. Eugenia F. St. John of Kansas is another successful

evangelist. She and her husband, who is a minister in the Methodist Episcopal church, work together in evangelistic labors.

Rev. Mary L. Moreland of Illinois, a Congregationalist, is a Massachusetts woman. Her experience is almost unique, as she says there was no "especial difficulty" intervening when she entered the ministry. "Years ago, in a little town in Massachusetts, I got my call from God, and I said to the old minister of my church: 'I will not be a minister; I will not enter the ministry when men are opposed to it. I do not propose to choose a life of hardship.' And so I put off the earnest call and went into other departments of work. But one day, unexpectedly, it seemed to me that God again led me out in spite of my wish or desire; and so the deacons of the church to which I had been called said, 'Miss Moreland, it is your duty to be ordained.' And I said, 'It is not; don't mention the matter; you will break up the church and spoil our meetings.' I said I had never heard of a woman being ordained in the Congregational church, but I found I was mistaken, for there was one before myself. That ordination was urged upon me, and the work of the pulpit became possible. It is becoming customary to ordain women in the Congregational church. Twelve women have been ordained into our church and I hope to see many more enter."

Rev. Henrietta G. Moore of Springfield, Ohio, is an ordained Universalist minister. She was formerly a high school teacher, and gained high rank, which she has maintained in the pulpit and on the platform. She is an especial favorite among the workers in the temperance cause in the far West.

Mrs. Sarah M. Perkins of Cleveland, Ohio, is another Universalist minister of excellent abilities and great energy.

Mrs. Annis Ford Eastman and her husband are valued assistants of Thomas K. Beecher; in fact, they are associate pastors with him of Park Church, Elmira, New York. She is a most effective preacher, and does her share of the work as pastor of this church of over six hundred members.

Rev. Olympia Brown was born in Ohio, graduated at Antioch College, and went through a theological course at the St. Lawrence University, being the first woman graduate. She is a graceful, fluent speaker, with "considerable powers of continuity and concentration, and is oblivious to everything but the idea she wishes to utter. She is a close reasoner, and an able debater, and has done much good work for the cause of woman's suffrage." Miss Brown is now pastor of a Universalist church in Racine, Wisconsin; receives a liberal salary, and is honored and beloved by her people.

The Rev. Augusta J. Chapin of Chicago is the first woman to receive the degree of Doctor of Divinity.

We close this chapter with an extract from an address by Rev. Mary A. Safford of Iowa, of the Unitarian church.

"As that monarch of the forest, the oak, is the result of the evolution of physical life, so woman's place in the church as a minister of religion is the result of that evolution of spiritual life which will yet transform the world.

"For centuries the power of the church and state rested on human souls with crushing weight. Little hope there seemed that the sons and daughters of God could ever rise into the noble stature of a free manhood and womanhood. But the demand for civil and religious liberty grew stronger and stronger, and slowly but surely the divine right of kings has given way to the diviner right of human souls; the authority of priest has yielded to the authority of reason and conscience, until at last the world is awaking to the truth that every human being has a right to grow. Thus has it come to pass that to-day woman stands in the pulpit as an ordained minister of religion. The growth of civil and religious liberty explains her advancement in the state and in the church. As a part of humanity she has shared in its unfolding life. With the growing recognition of the worth of the individual, woman is coming to her own."

PROGRESS OF INVENTIONS.

WONDERFUL RESULTS OF INVENTIVE GENIUS.

THE importance of the rôle played by inventions in economy of the world is one which increases yea year. Early inventions were few in number, and w of high importance in the primitive world, to-day are ha recognized as inventions at all. The hand tools, such as file, plane, ax, scythe, and saw, may be cited as instances. use of these implements in all parts of the world, for so m generations, proves their value as inventions and gives so l a standing of merit to them and their allies that they ap as embodiments of the best that man can do. Complexit not a necessary characteristic of invention, and generally ar no special merit.

In old times there were no patents for inventions, so that t early history is largely traditional. The ancient world sho its highest mechanical skill in metal working, glass blowi and pottery. The wonderful invention of glass is attribute shipwrecked Phœnicians, whose ship carried a cargo of ash. It is said that they made a fire on the shore, and that s of the blocks of potash placed by the fire, acting on the s fluxed the silica, and formed glass. The invention of the is attributed to Dædalus, who is said to have used a fish's bone with its finely serrated row of teeth to cut a piece of w The family of stringed instruments with hollow bodies said to have been suggested by a turtle's shell, which *crossed* by ligaments left from the decomposition of the anim

Progress Of Invention

nd dried in the sun. All these accounts are without any
e authority.

man digs up one and a half pounds of coal, he is in pos-
of that which will do his day's work, if the coal is used
odern steam boiler to drive a modern steam engine. No
on has exceeded the steam engine in importance, enabling
ner to send to the surface coal enough in each day of his
o do the work of thousands of men.

he year 150 B. C., attempts were made to utilize steam.
of Alexandria made the reaction engine, in which the
outrush of steam caused the revolution of the reservoir
ed from, this first steam engine being of the rotary type.
me inventor devised the cylinder and piston for use in
He had before him the elements of the modern steam
, the boiler evolving steam under pressure and the
r and piston for utilizing its energy, but he never thought
bining them by passing steam from his boiler into his
r, and nearly twenty centuries passed before his experi-
roduced any result of value.

sing over minor inventions in the use of steam, we find
was Dr. Papin of France who, in 1595, combined Hero's
cylinder and piston with a steam supply, and produced
mentary modern steam engine. The steam forced the
in one direction; the cylinder was allowed to cool, when
heric pressure drove the piston back. The steam supply
nerated in the cylinder itself, a small quantity of water
ntroduced, and fire being applied externally. To accel-
he cooling, Savery of England, in 1698, introduced the
a jet of water injected into the cylinder to produce the
n. Newcomen of England, in 1705, invented the separate
and Watt, 1778–1781, the greatest genius of all, invented
ndenser; this, with his invention of the double-acting
le and air pump, produced the low pressure engine of the
t day. *Since Watt's time, the* multifarious inventions

affecting the steam engine have all been in details. Watt it almost perfect a century ago.

It is interesting to study the origin of inventions. Wa believed to have been led to his invention by having a mod a Newcomen engine given him to repair. Another cu incident is cited from the history of the steam engine. valves of the original engines were worked by hand, a ch being made for each stroke. A Cornish pump boy na Potter, long before the era of Watt, rigged up a conne between the engine beam and valve handle, so that the en worked for the first time automatically. This he did in ord have more time for play, not having the least idea of ma an invention.

In old times ships were built of wood, and houses and bri were built of masonry and of wood. Now bridges are gi span of over a thousand feet, where formerly one or two dred feet was good practice; ships are made of five time length of the old time vessels, and houses are made twen more stories in height instead of three or four. All this i to the fact that wrought iron, so-called steel, can be prod by the Bessemer and open-hearth processes in immense qu ties at a low price.

The story of the invention of modern steel, coupled wit results, reads like a fairy tale. The Sheffield manufacture the last century used shear steel for their knives. A superior steel was made by a secret process, which was di ered by a spy who, disguised as a beggar, got admittance t works, and found that the wonderful secret consisted in si melting up bits of steel in a crucible. Cast steel is still mad a crucible holding from fifty to one hundred pounds. Bess reasoned that the usual accepted process was illogical. pig iron was first produced with three or four per cent. of car From this, wrought iron was made by puddling, all the car but a mere trace, being oxidized or burned out. From this,

was made by re-introduction of less than two per cent. of carbon. Then the bars of steel were broken up and melted to produce cast steel. The great consumption of coal, itself largely carbon, in these steps was evident. Bessemer proposed to melt pig iron, and to blow air through it. This burned out the carbon directly, the combined carbon supplying the fuel required for the process. He experimented, tried different qualities of iron, invented mechanism for carrying out the work, and to-day we see twelve tons of steel produced in a few minutes in one vessel, and poured out from it as perfect a liquid as water, so intense is the heat.

The crucible process of making cast steel is primarily defective in the subdivision of the metal into such small weights as could be treated in crucibles. This made the labor and fuel charges excessive. A direct successor to it was foreshadowed when Siemens invented the regenerative furnace. This furnace utilizes a portion of the waste heat, which otherwise would escape by the chimney. It burns the fuel in the gaseous state with hot air. There seems no limit to the degree of heat it can produce short of the destruction of the furnace. This furnace was applied to the production of cast steel. For the crucible with its load of fifty pounds of steel, the open hearth of a great furnace was substituted, and on this hearth tons of iron and steel are melted at one operation with the expenditure of hardly a tenth of the coal required in the old crucible process, and open hearth steel, one of the greatest triumphs of modern metallurgy, is the result. The navies of the world with ships of steel, heavily armored with steel plates, the lines of railroad laid with steel rails, the Firth bridge, seventeen hundred feet in span, the tall buildings of New York, Chicago, and other cities, rising nearly four hundred feet above the earth, are all products of the inventions of Siemens and Bessemer.

Iron and steel by the Bessemer and open-hearth processes are brought into so liquid a state that it seemed obvious that

they could be cast into any desired shape. But this proved impracticable for several reasons, one being that considerable scoria and gas bubbles are contained in the metal. The gas bubbles are a trouble that seemed very hard to dispose of. Whitworth of England attacked the problem in what seemed a very radical method, the application of high pressure to the melted metal. He applied a pressure of from six to nine tons to the square inch to the fluid metal in the mold, and as he supposed squeezed the gas out of it. He at any rate succeeded in producing perfectly solid castings of quality vastly superior to any hitherto attained. He built a press capable of producing a pressure of 8,000 tons. The process at first alarmed the very workmen, who dreaded the effects of applying such a pressure to a huge mass of melted steel, but it proved a great success. In the widely different soda water process may be found the analogue of Whitworth's steel process. Carbonic acid gas is dissolved in water by the application of pressure—it is probable that carbonic monoxide gas is dissolved in Whitworth's fluid compressed steel, and that the bubbles are thus disposed of.

It has been said that the civilization of a nation can be gauged by the extent of its soap production. This refers not to the cleanliness of the people, but to the extent of the chemical industries represented in the production of soda for soap. All this industry is based on a single invention made in the latter part of the eighteenth century. The world's supply of soda had been derived from a particular kind of sea plant, gathered on the shores of Spain and other countries. This plant was cultivated with the greatest care, and its semi-vitrified ashes formed an important article of export. The French Revolution cut off the supply from France, and the want of soda was seriously felt. An appeal was issued to French citizens, inventors and manufacturers, for a process to make soda from salt. A commission was appointed and examined some thirteen processes selecting ultimately Seblanc's. Works were started in 1794, to

exploit the new invention, and to-day it is used in substantially the same form as one hundred years ago, and under the name of the soda-ash process has built up the greatest chemical industry that the world has ever seen. Seblane, it is sad to relate, died a pauper in a French asylum.

A gauge of the degree of the world's civilization has been suggested in its production of artificial light. For centuries the most unsatisfactory lamps and candles were the main reliance for street and house lighting. Robberies were frequent, the dark streets at night favoring every kind of violence. Leaving aside purely experimental investigations, we find that the invention of gas illumination dates back barely one hundred years. In 1792 Murdock of England erected a gas works for lighting his house, and six years later lighted the works of Boulton & Watt, the latter the great inventor already referred to. In 1801 LeBon in Paris followed his example, lighting his own house and proposing to light the city of Paris. The industry at last began to grow, and twenty years later it was finally established. But gas had been made by the identical process of igniting bituminous coal by Dr. Clayton, a clergyman, rector of Crofton, England, about 1688. The invention had lain dormant over one hundred years.

We, who so thoughtlessly use artificial light in profusion, cannot well imagine the condition of the world a century ago in this regard. Petroleum had not been discovered, and heavy oils of vegetable and animal origin, and inferior candles, were the substances used for burning, and the very lamps were inferior. Argand of Geneva, in 1794, invented the cylinder wick lamp with central draught, one of the greatest inventions in its line ever made, and one which is used at the present time in all the lamps of the cylindrical wick type. Even in candles there has been room for important inventions. The old time candles required frequent snuffing, *the charred end* of the wick obstructing *the flame. Now the wick is so* braided as to bend over as

the candle burns; thus the end is constantly emerging from flame, and burns off in the air. This burning away of the of the wick is the cause of the red hot end of the wick, so c acteristic of the candle flame. To cause this bending to t place, one inventor introduced a thin wire in the wick, another a thread coated with powdered bismuth; others ad borax or phosphoric acid. The idea of these inventors wa supply something which would melt into a little globule at end of the wick, and pull it down into the desired curve. M candles of the present time have borax in their wicks, and globule can often be seen upon the end of the wick as the ca is burning.

One hundred years ago, the production of light from d ness, or the lighting of a fire, was no very easy matter. flint and steel with its tinder box, and supply of sulphur tip splints of wood, was a clumsy device, which however served the world for many generations. The modern m which has supplanted it owes its being to the discovery of p phorus. Brand, an alchemist of Hamburg, invented a pro of making phosphorus which he kept a secret, disclosing hi vention to a friend Krafft, who, in 1677, used to exhibit it great curiosity. It began in a few years to be used as a li ing agent, replacing to a certain extent the flint and s About 1834 the first true friction matches made their appeara their maker curiously enough not using phosphorus, bu mixture of potassium chlorate and antimony sulphide. Th dustry rapidly grew when phosphorus matches were ma few years later. Cases of phosphorus poisoning in the fact were very common among the operatives, until a chemis Vienna, Von Schrötten, in 1845 invented red phosphorus amorphous form, non-poisonous and comparatively safe. T we have a discovery of the seventeenth century only f *utilized* within the last fifty years.

A curious instance of the long sleep of an invention, a

lasting six centuries, if tradition is to be trusted, is afforded by the clock. It is claimed that in the year A.D. 1000 Ebu Junis of the University of Cordova had a pendulum clock to which his friend Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester II., is supposed to have added an escapement. One or two other clocks may have been made, but it was over five hundred years later, about 1581, that Galileo saw the lamp in the Cathedral of Pisa swinging, and noticing its isochronism, recommended the pendulum as a time measurer. The first combination of the pendulum with wheel work after this, is attributed to Sanctorius in 1612. After this, clocks and watches gave rise to numberless inventions and modifications of their mechanism. It is interesting among these to notice Benjamin Franklin's clock. He very ingeniously contrived mechanism giving hour and minute readings, yet including only three cog wheels and two pinions in the movement. Other improvements came in the field of chronometers for use at sea. A reward for a successful chronometer was offered by the Parliament of England in 1714. This was in sequence of a suggestion of Sir Isaac Newton's that a clock might be used for longitude determinations. Julius Harrison received the reward, twenty thousand pounds in installment, after more than thirty years of labor, 1728 to 1761. It is one of the rare instances of a government directly rewarding an inventor.

The steel pen now in almost universal use among the western nations is a very recent invention. Forty centuries ago, pens made of reeds were in use in Egypt. Twelve hundred years ago, quill pens came into use, and iron pens are mentioned as far back as 1685, but it was only in the beginning of the present century that the metallic pens began to come into use to any extent. Wire of London made steel pens as a regular article of commerce in 1803, and he worked under great discouragement, to be succeeded by the pen-makers of our time, Perry, Gillott, and other well known names. The pencil of the present day, *consisting of a slip of plumbago* imbedded in a wooden

handle, is older than the steel pen : its invention dates back to 1565, long before the era of the metallic pen. Much invention has been expended on the machinery used in the production of pencils.

Pen, and pencil, and brush were used for producing books and records until the invention of printing in the first half of the fifteenth century. Before that epoch engraved blocks had been used to print off books, page by page. The simple invention of cutting up such a block into its constituent letters and using them for other books revolutionized the aspect of literature. Block printing was a very ancient art, and the wonder is that movable type were not invented centuries before Faust and Gutenberg, the actual inventors. But no less remarkable is it that the art after its first development stayed unchanged in its basic principles for so many years, and that movable type are used at the present day. The most serious attempt entirely to displace them appears in the linotype invented by Mergenthaler in 1884. In this machine, the workman, by pressing lettered keys like piano keys, instead of type, sets matrices, or little molds for type. When matrices enough to form a line of the book have been set, they form the bottom of a mold for such a line. Into this mold, the machine in its regular operation pours melted type metal, which as it solidifies produces a solid line of printing, called a "slug." The slugs are placed one after another in position on the imposing stone, and the work can be printed directly from them, or they can be used for electrotyping or stereotyping.

Somewhat in this order is the typewriter. As long ago as 1856, a typewriter of much the same construction as the present familiar machine was produced by Albert E. Bead of New York. He designed it for use by the blind, it giving a letter in relief on the paper. The invention never came to anything. Other inventors were working on the same idea, and Hall of New York produced and exhibited one about 1867, which was

shown at the Paris Exposition of that year. About this time, three associated inventors, Sholes, Soul, and Glidden, with assistance from a printer and editor of Meadville, Pa., James Densmore, produced a machine, which was practically complete in 1873, and four hundred such machines were sold in 1874. This was the modern typewriter, and it has been the center of many minor inventions, as well as the cause of many rival inventions. Among inventions it is in the first rank as a successful achievement.

Sometimes two or more inventions are made almost simultaneously, which are complementary to each other, each being required to complete the system. The telephone, originally of the magneto form, was a comparatively impracticable thing. It was designed to use the identical instrument for transmitter and receiver. But the sound waves, acting on the transmitting instrument and generating electrical currents, produced such very minute currents, that, with absolute shouting, the results were inferior. Almost at the same time the microphone was invented, in which sound waves, instead of producing electrical currents, produced variations in an existing electric current, and the system was complete. Shouting was no longer necessary, and the entire telephone system of the world is built upon the microphone as a basis. It is hard to believe that the first telephones known to speak go back only to 1876, and that a period of twenty years has worked such a revolution in the communication of intelligence.

A very curious incident in the history of inventions is afforded by the magnetic telephone, the receiver instrument which is held to the ear. This has been held to be covered by patents issued to Bell in 1876 and 1877. Years before this, Morse was busy with his telegraph, and had invented the relay system, which supplied the deficiency of his original process of telegraphy, as it made possible the use of strong local currents worked by a weak line current. Royal House endeavored to

invent a substitute for the relay. In a patent dated 186
described, without knowing it to be such, a magnetic telep
one which could speak, and could be placed in any telep
line, and used successfully. He never dreamed that it c
reproduce speech, designing it only as a sensitive sound
ducer, and the invention lay dormant, and has never bee
any service.

A remarkable example of size determining the presen
invention, and incidentally of the value of an article in the
flush of its introduction, is afforded by the roller glass cu
Here the efficacy of the implement depends largely on the
of the roller, so that invention may be found in the use
small a roller. When originally placed on the market, it
for about ten times its present price.

The propriety of treating inventions as direct creatio
genius is proved repeatedly by the revolutions in the wo
methods and progress effected by them. The apparently n
inventions often prove the more profitable, and often em
more invention than very complicated ones, and in n
instances the critical or fundamental invention escapes pa
ing. The sewing machine affords a case in point. The ess
of the modern sewing machine is found in the needle point
the eye. For many years attempts more or less successful
made to produce sewing machines, and in some the ordi
needle was used; in others a needle perforated in its ce
and in others a hooked needle like the crochet needle
employed. At last, in 1832 to 1834, Walter Hunt of New
employed the needle perforated at the point. He kep
experimenting, and was so impracticable that we receive
benefit from his invention, and in 1841 in England, and in
in America, his needle was used in sewing machines, the l
year serving as the birth year of the modern sewing mac
When in 1854 Hunt attempted to patent his machine, it wa
late. Among all the inventions for which the sewing mac

has afforded a basis, the fundamental invention is the simplest. It consists merely in shifting the eye of the needle, or simpler yet of converting the hook of a crochet needle into an eye.

Another example of a fundamental and exceedingly simple invention is found in the perfecting printing press. Running at high speed, it is absolutely necessary that the paper should be fed with the utmost accuracy. The paper is supplied in rolls, each containing many hundred feet wound like a roll of cloth. If in the operation of the machine the roller was turned with uniform speed, the paper would be fed off much faster when the roller was full than when it was nearly exhausted, because of the ensuing decrease in diameter. Accordingly the feed is regulated by a feed roller which presses on the surface of the roll of paper. The feed roller turning at uniform speed, there is maintained a uniform peripheral speed of the roll of paper, whatever its diameter may be. This device, utterly simple as it is, makes the perfecting press a practical success. Simple as it is, it may rank as a fundamental element in the structure. But owing to previous use in another machine it is unpatentable. It is an excellent example of true invention. Like the sewing machine needle, it is not covered by a lot of accessories, but has the status of simplicity.

It will be easily understood that the history of inventions would require for its treatment more volumes than the pages here at our disposal. There are, however, some additional features in inventions that should be mentioned. One is the mutual dependence and relation of inventions. India rubber was introduced in England during the last century, as a substance for erasing pencil marks. This gave it its very peculiar name. It was found to be an extremely unsatisfactory material for other purposes, as it was affected by heat and cold, becoming hard and soft under changes of temperature. Goodyear in 1839 practically stumbled upon the vulcanization process, and made India rubber a practical success for overshoes and

other uses. Man had long been trying to invent a velocipede, and many such were produced experimentally, but it was not until some twenty-five years ago that the crank driven two wheeled bicycle was successfully turned out, and the measure of its success, comparatively small as it was, was due to its India rubber tire. Later came the safety bicycle, still with its India rubber tire, and ball bearings, which had already been introduced in the other bicycles, were applied to it. Still it had but a limited use, until the idea occurred to a Dublin inventor to make the tires hollow, and inflate them with air. This improvement, which really was an old and abandoned invention reinstated, was slowly received, but proved to be the soul of the modern bicycle, and has caused the wheel to become an almost universal method of propulsion. But if we go back some fifty years and eliminate Goodyear's invention, we eliminate with it the modern bicycle. The ball bearings are essential to it, and now most ingenious machinery has been invented simply for the purpose of producing the millions of little spheres of steel required in the construction of bicycles.

The modern development of electricity hinges upon the smallest phenomenon, the production of a tiny spark by Faraday, in one of his experiments in electric induction. In 1831 he read a paper before the Royal Society of London, showing the possibility of converting mechanical energy into electric energy. Various machines were from time to time constructed. In 1854 Hjorth of Copenhagen patented in England an electric generator in which the current generated by the armature was caused to circulate around the field magnets. This is the principle of the modern dynamo. It entered into one of the sleeps of inventions, and came to nothing, and in 1857 Wheatstone of England and Siemens of Germany, Hjorth being forgotten, appear as rival competitors for the honor of inventing the modern dynamo. The dynamo at last began to come into use. *The principle* enunciated by the three inventors just named

seemed to destroy any limit to the power of generating electric energy. By slow and troublesome progress at first, the field of electric work increased, difficulties were overcome, subsidiary inventions were made, until the rôle of electricity became one of unanticipated scope and importance. Sir Humphry Davy, in the early part of this century, produced an imperfect and purely experimental display of the electric light, using an immense primary battery, whose size was necessary on account of its great imperfection. Faraday's discovery, supplemented by the invention of the dynamo, makes electricity one of the principal sources of artificial light.

When Sir Humphry Davy, using the same battery, produced in 1807 metals of the alkalies, it became tolerably certain that all the so-called earths had metallic bases. Under the auspices of Napoleon III., Deville had tried to produce commercially one of these metals, the base of alumina or of clay, and had produced aluminum in some quantity, reducing it by the use of metallic sodium, the latter one of the metals discovered by Davy. Aluminum remained a chemical curiosity until, within a few years, the dynamo was applied to its production, and now it is rapidly coming into extensive use. Again we have Faraday's discovery of magnetic induction leading to unforeseen results. While experimenting with the electric furnace for the production of aluminum, Wilson in Spray, North Carolina, produced a hard stone-like substance, which, thrown into water, evolved an inflammable gas. The substance proved to be a compound of carbon and calcium, the gas proved to be a compound of carbon and hydrogen, acetylene. The most important and wonderful synthesis in the history of chemistry was effected, the commercial synthesis of carbon and hydrogen. It is impossible to say what the limits of this discovery will be. Atcheson in Monongahela, Pa., trying to produce the diamond electrically by a powerful current of electricity passed through carbon, *produced* in 1890 a compound of

carbon and silicon of adamantine hardness, which is now regularly manufactured and made into grinding wheels, hones, and is sold as a polishing powder, replacing natural emery or corundum.

Faraday's discovery supplemented by the invention of the dynamo is at the root of the modern chemical and metallurgical principles embodied in the commercial production of aluminum, acetylene, and carborundum.

Inventions have often been kept secret, and with profit, for secrecy under certain conditions may give a better monopoly than that afforded by the protection of the courts incident to the granting of letters patent. Several instances occurred in the Bessemer family. Anthony Bessemer, father of the inventor of the Bessemer steel process, an exile from France in the days of the revolution, settled in London. He found that jewelers' old pickle, accounted a waste product, contained gold in solution. He invented a process of separating the gold and depositing it upon shavings of another metal, which latter metal was melted away afterwards, leaving the pure gold. He used to buy up the waste pickle, extract the gold from it, and thus made a profitable industry. The secret died with him. He manufactured type for printers. This type was of better quality than the usual article, simply because of the alloy he made it of. Knowing that it could be analyzed, he diverted attention from its composition, by claiming that the shape of his type caused it to wear better, and managed to keep his secret for some twelve years, making money out of it during that period.

His son, Henry Bessemer, the inventor of Bessemer steel, invented a process of making bronze powder, keeping it a profound secret. Nearly fifty thousand pounds were invested by a friend in the new business, which at one time paid a profit of one thousand per cent. on the cost of production. The process is to-day as great a secret as ever, although it has been worked for over forty years.

Before closing, one of the curious stories of invention may be given. The ingenious process of making lead shot by pouring a fine rain of melted lead down a deep shaft or lofty tower is generally known. The drops of melted lead by surface tension are drawn into spherical shape, cool and solidify in the ing descent, and are received in vessels of water. It is said at the inventor dreamed of the process. A similar story is ld of the inventor of the sewing machine needle, perforated at e point. It is doubtful if there is as much foundation for the tter, as for the former, even.

The writer has made an attempt to outline the history of ventions. There are now in existence upwards of a million stinct records of inventions and attempts at inventions. He s only endeavored, in the very short space at his disposal, to ow how inventions may be made, how one invention may ad to others, and how the most wonderful and unforeseen sults may spring from what seemed to be discoveries and ventions of the slightest importance.

WOMAN'S INVENTIVE SKILL.

HER INGENIOUS HAND IN MECHANICAL DEVICES.

That all our knowledge begins with experience, there can be doubt.—*Kant.*

IT is surprising to note the large number of useful a valuable inventions which have been perfected by wom As an inducement to patrons of a food exposition New York, an advertisement announced that there wo be on exhibition, the models of one hundred inventions women.

This statement led to a survey of woman's achievements this direction, and we discover that while women have attai a fair position in many lines of activity, as inventors, t have, thus far, produced fewer important results than in ot fields of thought and effort. If this is due, as some maint to their past environment, to their hitherto inferior educatic advantages, and their limited opportunities, there is ground a belief that women will in the coming years advance rapi in achievements and inventions, for all those conditions t have, in the past, acted unfavorably for the development their mental powers are rapidly changing.

Unquestionably, this release of woman is due more to inv tion than to any other material agency in social progress. should be profoundly grateful for the music of the sew machine, the shuttle, the spindle, and the knitter, for these a *the song* of her deliverance. It is these that have wrought

change, and have substituted for the work of woman fifty years ago, other and higher occupations.

But the inventions of women! Few American women are there now who have not some kind of an invention; at least, have thought of one. Many a housekeeper has many useful, if not ingenious, contrivances of her own thought, which she would never dignify by the term invention.

They are not patented; they are not on the market; but they are valuable to her, because they are useful, and the fruit of her own ingenuity.

It may be said that these tendencies toward mechanical invention are incipient, and this statement may be granted; but the germ is there, and in a fertile and cultivated soil is sure to grow.

Pillow lace is among the earliest inventions of woman. Beckman in his "Contributions to the History of Inventions" says: "I will venture to assert that the knitting of lace is a German invention, first known about the middle of the sixteenth century; and I shall consider as true, until it be fully contradicted, the account given us that this art was found out before 1561, at St. Annaberg, by Barbara, wife of Christopher Uttmann. This woman died in the sixty-first year of her age, after she had seen sixty-four children and grandchildren; and that she was the inventress of this art is unanimously affirmed by all the annalists of Saxony." So to Barbara Uttmann is due the rescue of Saxony by means of her invention of pillow lace.

Betsey Metcalf originated the straw industry of the United States by her manufacture of straw bonnets, from which Massachusetts alone reaps a harvest of many thousands of dollars every year.

Of the sixteen remarkable inventions adopted by the world, the cotton-gin leads the list. Although the work was done by Eli Whitney, it was at the urgent desire of Mrs. Greene, the widow of General *Nathaniel Greene, that* he made the attempt.

When success seemed to elude him, and he was tempted to g up, because the wooden teeth failed to do the desired task,] Greene never yielded the thought of ultimate success, suggested the use of wire in place of wood. This though hers was acted upon, and the model made was so complete all succeeding gins have been patterned after it.

We read that the "Burden" horseshoe machine, wl turns out a horseshoe every three seconds and saves mill of dollars annually, was the invention of a woman.

When Mr. Roebling, engineer of the great Brooklyn bri was stricken down with overwork, his wife assumed his du as chief-engineer, and sat down with manufacturers to t them to make patterns which no mill was then producing.

The United States Patent Office was established in 1790, it is stated that a woman obtained a patent in that year, bu nature of the invention or the name of the inventor is no corded. The first invention by a woman mentioned in the ent Office Reports is a device for the weaving of silk thread with straw, and was patented by Mary Kies, May 5,

A study of Patent Office Reports reveals the fact that cles of wearing apparel, notably the corset, take the lea the inventions of women, at least so far as numbers are cerned; for there have been one hundred and fifty kinc variations of these so-called necessary adjuncts of a wom dress patented by women, and the second patent granted woman was for a corset, and was taken out by Miss Mary F July 21, 1815.

Since the Centennial Exposition in 1876, the women of country have been more active as inventors than in all the ceding years of the century. Nearly four hundred applica for patents were made by women in 1893, and the entire ber of patents granted to women since the founding of Patent Office is about four thousand.

There is not a wide range covered by these creations

majority of them being mechanical contrivances evolved when domestic comforts and conveniences were hard to obtain and consequently were few in number. A desire to facilitate matters in the kitchen, or to furnish some toy or game for the amusement of the children, has been the inspiration for the greater number of woman's inventions. Hence, we find that in the invention of washing machines, dish-washers, churns, mangles, steamers for sauce pans of varying size, baby carriages, baby swings or jumpers, trundle beds, children's toys and games, the paper pail, buttons that are self-fastening, and other similar devices woman has been most fruitful.

Among the inventions displayed at the International Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia, in 1876, was that of a combination desk. This desk was the invention of Mrs. Elizabeth White Stiles of Philadelphia. She was for years chairman of the library committee of the Women's Christian Association. It was in the effort to furnish the library of that association, according to their instructions, in such a manner as not to interfere with committee meetings, or larger audiences, that the idea was suggested to her mind. Her experience and observation had shown her the advantage of some sort of partition between readers and writers. After its completion it was shown at the New York American Institute and Mrs. Stiles received a silver medal,—the first premium and first award given to a woman inventor. When the Exhibition of 1876 opened, the desk was heartily accorded a place in five of the principal buildings, and received the prize medal from the judges of award. The United States government gave it especial notice and adopted it for immediate use.

Invention is not always born of necessity, for the woman who conceived the great idea of twisting wire, thus forming a wire rope, was the wife of a New York banker. Inventive genius was strong in her and she finally perfected a machine for twisting wire, the patent of which she sold for fifty thousand

dollars, and a royalty on future sales. Miss Helen Blanchard made a snug fortune out of a simple attachment for a sewing machine, which she invented.

Miss Phelps, of Dorchester, Massachusetts, invented a lunch box and hand refrigerator combined. This is made in differen sizes, the smallest of which will hold, in a zinc lined compart ment, two or three pounds of ice. It is designed particularly fo use on picnics, and in places where ice is not easily obtainabl

Marie Stockman, a German woman, has invented a series c frames which will enable any blind person easily to count an number of stitches while embroidering or knitting, and also t select the exact color needed at any time. This invention open up a new world of employment to the blind. They will be abl to embroider and knit anything ; also to weave tapestries, rugs portières, and many other things. This invention is most phi anthropic in its use.

In the inventions for the advancement of art, that of Mis M. Louise McLaughlin of Cincinnati is important. In 1877 sh began to experiment in her search for the secrets of the Limoge faience, and the next year painted the first successful piece c blue underglaze on white ware. Months of labor and consic erable money were spent before success was achieved ; the prep aration of clays, the adaptation of colors, suitable firing fo underglaze decorations, were all matters of vital importance i the accomplishment of the new decorative process. It is sai that many unsuccessful efforts had been made to imitate o reproduce the faience of Limoges. This may or may not b true ; but there can be no doubt that in the United States artist in China painting are indebted to Miss McLaughlin for it accomplishment.

Twenty years ago Miss Montgomery of New York won rep utation as an inventor, by introducing an improvement in loco motive wheels, and more recently a patent has been granted t her for an improvement in war vessels.

A woman of Philadelphia invented a machine which has the capacity of turning out hundreds of barrels a day, ready made.

The name of Emma D. Mills is well known from her connection with any movement for the advancement of women in the industrial world. But it is not so generally known that she is the inventor of a typewriter attachment, of which she personally superintends the manufacture and sale, as well as the making of special tools to facilitate the output of the article.

Mrs. Batcheller is famous among women inventors; having made an ear holder, which is a device intended to straighten crooked ears, and to make ears that lop stand erect and grow as they should.

Mrs. Cynthia Westover of New York, who is elsewhere mentioned in this work, has patented an improved dump-cart, which stands the test of everyday use and works to perfection. Connected with the street cleaning department of New York, she saw the need of such an implement, and her active brain devised it.

The "Coston Signals" have been of great value in the life saving service. During the civil war these signals were employed very advantageously, and have since been adopted by different European governments. They are the invention of Mrs. Martha J. Coston, who derived the idea from her husband. He had made preliminary experiments in producing signals to be used at night, and after his death Mrs. Coston, with great labor and infinite patience, finally perfected a code containing well defined combinations of the three colored lights —white, red, and green—indicating the numerals, by which method a great number of messages may be conveyed.

Among the latest inventions is one by a woman in Washington for heating and cooking. It is very simple and the wonder is that it had not been thought of before. It is simply a steel rod which slips over an ordinary gas jet, carrying with it a small plate or tray of Russia iron, fitted on one side with a

small box or oven and on the other side with a depression suitable for the reception of a coffee or tea pot, or a water kettle. The whole revolves so that the gas may heat either end of the tray.

One that is a companion piece to this is the "cooking clock," also the invention of a woman. This clock has a frame similar to that of eight-day clocks. In the lower part of the frame is a gasoline stove, which is drawn out when in use. Below this stove is a shelf for pots, pans, and kettles, while above is a china closet, not of large dimensions, but sufficient to hold all the dishes necessary for the use of one person. Above the closet is the clock, and behind the clock is the gasoline vapor tank, which is connected with the stove by a tube that the frame of the clock conceals. To make it complete, somewhere about the machine is a shelf for a writing table and a drawer for writing materials, enabling the owner to proceed with her literary work while the dinner is being cooked.

Among other inventions are: a workingman's dinner pail a plan for heating cars, and another for ventilating cars; a spark arrester; a combined trunk and bureau; a device patented by Mrs. Smith of New Jersey, whereby knives can be adjusted upon a reaper or mower while the machine is in motion; a new waterproof garment, its claim being the protection it affords the bottom of skirts and the ankles.

Edison's opinion of women assistants for the details of his electrical inventions is given in a preceding chapter. That he prefers them is evident from the large number on the pay roll.

Much of the foregoing has been condensed from an article in a recent number of the *Chautauquan*, written by Leon Mead, who concludes by saying:—

"From the foregoing some idea may be derived of what American women have accomplished in the line of invention But the end is not yet. The coming woman has not yet arrived but she is on the way. The more familiar women become with

the commercial and industrial operations and needs of the country, the better they will be prepared to cope with mechanical perplexities, assuming of course that they are determined to master the sciences. The future looks bright and glorious for all womankind in the United States."

"Give her of the fruits of her hands, and let her works praise her in the gates."

WOMAN IN SCIENCE.

HER ACHIEVEMENTS IN SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

PHYSICAL science, at the present day, has opened up a sphere of activity affording useful employment to many persons of even moderate ability. Original research, or the work of applied science, calls for assistants to perform labor requiring time, intelligence, and great accuracy, but not of necessity demanding original mental power.

This field of work, so useful and important, has already been entered by women. As laboratory assistants they engage in a work which, according to the words of Dr. Mary Jacobi, "though relatively inferior, is absolutely so important, dignified, difficult, and interesting, that the women who should or do engage in it may be well satisfied, even when they do not advance to the dignity of original contributors to the science they serve."

It has been the common opinion though all time that the feminine mind was sadly deficient in capacity for mathematics. Nevertheless it is a historical fact that the entrance of women into the field of science was made by way of mathematics and astronomy. Doubtless the reason so few have achieved practical results in these sciences is that they are too remote and abstract to appeal to the ordinary intellect.

Of the women in ancient times who pursued mathematical studies, the most celebrated was Hypatia, the subject of Charles Kingsley's famous novel. She was the daughter of Theon, an

astronomer and mathematician of Alexandria, and was born in the latter part of the fourth century. She is said to have been remarkably beautiful, and from her earliest youth to have exhibited an amazing intelligence, in consequence of which her father gave her a thoroughly philosophic culture. She succeeded her father in the chair of philosophy in the University of Alexandria: lectured on philosophy before large audiences with such success that the fame of her lectures drew around her students from all parts of the East, where the influences of Greek thought and knowledge were felt. Her tragic death is very vividly portrayed by Kingsley. She was dragged from her chariot by infuriated monks as she was returning from her lecture room, carried to the Cæsarian church, stripped naked, murdered, torn to pieces, and her limbs burned to ashes. Her books and writings were also burned, only three volumes now being in existence.

A good many years pass before another brilliant name appears on the record of woman's scientific labors. In February, 1670, Marie Winckelmann was born near Leipsic. After her marriage to Gottfried Kirch, an astronomer of Berlin, she became her husband's assistant in his calculations and reductions and aided him in his observations. That her work was not superficial is evident from the fact of her continuance of the study after her husband's death in 1710. In 1712 she published a work, consisting mainly of calculations, anticipating the conjunction of Jupiter and Saturn which was to take place in the following year. The daughters of this eminent woman inherited a taste for astronomical study, which they pursued with her, and after her death computed the Almanac for the Academy of Sciences in Berlin.

Maria Cunitz of Silesia published astronomical tables in 1650; Jeanne Dumée, of France, defended the Copernican system in a work published in 1650; Madame Hortense Lepaute and Madame Raümter, the latter the wife of the director of the

Hamburg observatory, have made important studies regarding comets; Mme. Janssen has accompanied her husband on long voyages to remote places to aid in his astronomical labors; and Professor Norman Payson has for years been ably assisted by his sister in the British observatory at Madras, India.

During the eighteenth century a number of brilliant women appeared whose names are rendered immortal by the great work they accomplished. First among these, in order of time, is the Marquise du Châtelet, a very learned French woman. She was born at Paris in 1706 and died at Luneville in 1749. Her first writing was a treatise on the philosophy of Leibnitz. She was a most devoted student of astronomy and mathematics, and accomplished the translation of Newton's "Principia" into French. This work was done under the supervision of Voltaire, who was a very intimate friend of Mme. du Châtelet. The preface to this translation is by Voltaire. In it he writes, "We have witnessed two prodigies; one that Newton should have composed the work; and the other, that a woman should have translated it."

The great work and the wonderful achievements of Sir William Herschel were made possible by the valuable assistance of his sister, Caroline Lucretia. Without her aid, many of the discoveries he made would never have been published. They were the children of a musician, and were born in Hanover. The brother was educated for a professional musician and went to England, where he became a teacher of music, teaching and serving as organist and as orchestra conductor in the towns of Leeds, Halifax, and Bath. At Bath he seems to have first turned his attention to astronomy. Needing a telescope, and unable to buy a reflector, he proceeded to make one for himself, and finally abandoned music to devote himself wholly to astronomy. Caroline, having also a musical ability, was sent for by her brother while he was in Bath; coming to that town, she occupied her time in singing in concerts under

William's direction, and in polishing mirrors for his reflecting telescopes.

After Sir William's discovery of the planet Uranus and his consequent appointment as Royal Astronomer to George III., Caroline became his constant helper, doing all the duties of an assistant astronomer, and as such received a small annual salary. She appears to have had no especial inborn aptitude for his work, her first interest in it being gained by an overwhelming desire to assist her beloved brother, and her unswerving devotion to him and his work bestows honor upon her equal to that won by her own individual research.

The following extract from her journal shows how the love or and interest in scientific investigations grew:—

"I found I was to be trained for an assistant astronomer, and by way of encouragement a telescope adapted for 'sweeping,' consisting of a tube with two glasses such as are commonly used in a finder, was given me. I was to 'sweep' for comets, and I see by my journal that I began August 22, 1782, to write down and describe all remarkable appearances I saw in my 'sweeps,' which were horizontal. But it was not till the last two months of the same year that I felt the least encouragement to spend the starlight nights on a grass-plot covered with dew or hoar frost, without a human being near enough to be within call."

Gradually she began to desire to make independent observations, particularly after 1788, the year of Sir William's marriage. In the following ten years she discovered eight new comets, in regard to five of which she has the credit of priority of discovery. Among her private papers was a package labeled, with a bit of humor, "Bills and receipts of my comets." Each paper was marked "first comet," "second comet," etc., and contained all the memoranda, reductions, and data, in perfect order. Her first comet was discovered on August 2, 1786, and the eighth, August 6, 1797.

Caroline Herschel lived with her brother during the whol of his career, and at his death, broken hearted and lonely, sh returned to her early home at Hanover. She was then seventy two years of age. Although she belittles her work and say anyone of average ability could be trained to do what sh did, that she was "a mere tool which William had th trouble of sharpening," yet she had a part in all his triumph and bore her share of his failures. In every undertaking sh was ready with assistance and interest, from the constructio of the first small telescope to that of the more ponderous appa ratus of which she made the first crude model out of paste board.

The knowledge of algebraical and mathematical formul necessary for reductions and calculations was gained in the od moments she could be spared from her brother. By the sam economy of time, she was enabled to discover, beside th comets referred to, several remarkable nebulæ and clusters o stars.

In 1798 she published "A Catalogue of Stars Observed b Flamsteed." This very valuable work was published at th expense of the Royal Astronomical Society, and containe eight hundred and sixty stars omitted in the British catalogue She is also the author of "A General Index of Reference t every Observation of every Star in the British Catalogue."

Although Caroline Herschel was seventy-two years of ag when she returned to Hanover, she lived to be ninety-eight retaining well her faculties to the last. In the later years she was not idle, for the most laborious work she accomplished, begun while Sir William was yet living, was not finished until her return to Hanover. This work was no less than an arrangement in the form of a catalogue in zones of all the nebulæ and star clusters observed by her brother in his "sweeps." The following is Sir David Brewster's comment upon it :—

It is a "work of immense labor, and an extraordinary monument of the unextinguished ardor of a lady of seventy-five in the cause of abstract science." It procured for her a gold medal from the Royal Astronomical Society of London, which was bestowed in 1828, and she was afterwards chosen an honorary member of that society.

Caroline Herschel was buried in Hanover. Her monument bears the dates of her birth and death and this epitaph: "The eyes of her who is glorified were here below turned to the starry heavens. Her own discoveries of comets, and her participation in the mental labors of her brother, William Herschel, bear witness of this to future ages."

Another important name is that of Mary Somerville, a lady famed for her mastery of mathematics and physical science. She was of Scottish birth, the daughter of Admiral William Fairfax, and was born December 26, 1780. Her early surroundings were rather narrow, and her education, until she was nine years old, was under the guidance of her mother. At ten she went for a year to a school at Musselburgh, Scotland, and when just entering young womanhood had an opportunity twice to study for a time in Edinburgh. The studies pursued were mainly music, drawing, and a little Latin, which were not nearly so much to the young lady's taste as mathematics. It is recorded as an interesting fact that "it was by means of an algebraic sum in a magazine of fashions that Mrs. Somerville first made her acquaintance with the subject that most engrossed her attention later in life." The prejudice against learned women was so manifest that she pursued the study of higher mathematics in secret. In 1804 she was married to Captain Samuel Greig, who was connected with the Russian navy, and stationed in London, where she went to reside. Her husband, although not preventing her study of scientific subjects, had himself no interest in science, and was rather prejudiced against its pursuit. So it was not until her return home as a

widow that she felt free to purchase the books and study the subjects of most interest to her.

In 1812 she married her cousin, Dr. William Somerville, who entered warmly into all her ideas, and greatly encouraged her talent. They removed to London in 1816, where Mrs. Somerville went much into society, and was soon known as possessed of scientific interests and gifts. This knowledge was made public through the publication of the results of some experiments of Mrs. Somerville on the magnetic influence of the violet rays in the solar spectrum.

Fame came through her abridgment and translation of Laplace's great work, which she published in 1831 as "The Mechanism of the Heavens." This work was received with great admiration, and she was elected an honorary member of the Royal Astronomical Society of London. Among her other books on science were "The Connection of the Physical Sciences," a "Physical Geography," and "Molecular and Microscopic Science." At the age of ninety, several hours each day were occupied in reading works on the higher mathematics. Mrs. Somerville lived for many years in Italy, and died in Naples, November 26, 1872, aged ninety-two years.

Another English woman, Miss Agnes M. Clerke of London, has won a prominent place in the scientific world by the publication in 1886, of a work entitled "The History of Astronomy in the Nineteenth Century"; and a later work published in 1890, "The System of the Stars," is both useful and interesting.

Maria Mitchell is the name of the first American woman to be known in connection with any science. She was born in Nantucket, Mass., August 1, 1818. Her father, William Mitchell, was a school teacher, and devoted much attention to the study of astronomy. Maria received her education through her father's teaching, and, as might be expected, at an early age became imbued with a love for astronomical studies.

at eleven years of age she was sufficiently familiar with mathmatics and astronomy to assist her father in his work. For wenty years she was connected with the library in her native own, as librarian. During these years, all leisure hours were levoted especially to the study of comets and nebulæ, making areful observations, which were rewarded in October, 1847, y the discovery of a comet. She published an account of his discovery, which had been verified by her father and other stronomers, and for which she received from the King of Denmark a gold medal. During the next ten years Miss Mitchell was employed by the coast survey, and assisted in compiling a nautical almanac. In 1858 she traveled in Europe, and was entertained in the homes of Sir John Herschel, Humboldt, and Leverrier; she visited also the principal observatories of Europe. In 1865 she became professor of astronomy in Vassar College, which position she held for twenty-three years, her resignation being necessitated by failing health. Her death occurred in Lynn, June 28, 1889.

Many honors were conferred upon her. The degree of LL.D. was given by Hanover College in 1853. She was the first woman to be elected to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and was also a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. As has been mentioned elsewhere in this work, she held the office of president, for at least two years, of the American Association for the Advancement of Women.

Like other eminent women, who, for a long lifetime, have been devoted to literary or scientific work, her last years were busy years, and were spent in study of the sun and his spots, Jupiter and his satellites, and in computations for the American Nautical Almanac.

In an address upon "Woman in Science," Dr. Jacobi of New York mentions the following women who are doing valuable work as laboratory assistants. Miss Margaretta Palmer, a

graduate of Vassar College in 1887, is working as regular assistant in the Yale Observatory, under Dr. W. L. Elkin. As a computer her work is highly valued, and she has reinvestigated the orbit of the comet of 1847, which was discovered by Maria Mitchell.

Miss Mary W. Whitney was appointed to the place at Vassar made vacant by the resignation of Miss Mitchell. Her studies and observations under Miss Mitchell's guidance and the months spent in Europe studying astronomy and mathematics at the University of Zurich have fitted her for the responsible position.

Esther Singleton reviewed the work of women as astronomers in the *Chautauquan* not long ago. She said: "The application of photography to astronomical work has opened a wide field for the employment of women, and at Harvard College Observatory there are seven women assistants under the superintendence of Mrs. Fleming now engaged in studying the photographs. It is found that the work ordinarily done by men at night with a telescope may be done even better in the daytime by women examining photographs with a microscope or magnifying glass. New discoveries are thus made, and can be verified without waiting for clear weather.

"Mrs. Fleming is a native of Dundee, Scotland, where she was a teacher for several years. Since coming to the United States she has been employed at Harvard College Observatory as above stated, having charge of nearly all of the reductions of the photographic work, and of the meteorological reductions. She has also contributed numerous articles to astronomical journals regarding her discoveries of twelve new variable stars."

Some years ago, Professor Bowditch, of Harvard University, published some valuable researches on the growth of American school children. The result of these researches was summed up in tables based on mathematical calculations, and these were

ıade chiefly by Miss Jacobs at the Massachusetts Institute of 'echnology. At this institution, and also at the Stevens Institute at Hoboken, ladies have worked as assistants in the chemcal laboratories. One of these, Miss Chevalier, was offered a osition as permanent assistant in the chemical laboratory at 'ornell University, but declined, and has been for a number of 'ears professor of chemistry at the Woman's Medical College f New York. She has performed difficult chemical researches n nerve tissues.

At Ithaca, also, in the laboratory for comparative anatomy, he wife of Professor Burt C. Wilder assists in her husband's vork, and has illustrated his paper on brain anatomy, pubished in the reference handbook on medical sciences.

"In the histological laboratory of the Woman's Medical College of New York, excellent work is done by female assistants to the professor, or in the preparation of embryological and other specimens."

Professor Rachel Littler Bodley, A.M., M.D., dean of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, at Philadelphia, is a most successful botanist and chemist. She was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, and was a pupil in a private school taught by her mother, until her twelfth year. She entered the Wesleyan Female College of Cincinnati in 1844, graduating in 1849, and was immediately appointed assistant teacher in the same institution, remaining there and advancing in grade, until, in 1860, she was preceptress in the higher collegiate studies. In 1860 she became a special student in advanced chemistry and physics in the Polytechnic College of Pennsylvania, and in practical anatomy and physiology at the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. In 1862, her scientific attainments were such that Miss Bodley was engaged as Professor of Natural Sciences at her Alma Mater at Cincinnati.

During the three years she remained in this position, her superior knowledge of botany was well tested in the arrange-

ment and classification of a large collection of botanical specimens, that had been given to the Seminary. The result of this labor, extending through three years, was shown not only in a fine herbarium prepared by her, but also in a catalogue of forty-eight pages. For this latter work she received very gracious commendation from Dr. Asa Gray, the most eminent authority on botany in the United States.

Her acceptance in 1865 of the chair of chemistry and tocology in the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania made her the first woman professor of chemistry on record. Professor Bodley was elected dean of the college in 1874. The duties of this new position, combined with those of the chair she occupies, make her life an exceedingly busy one. Many honors have been bestowed upon Dr. Bodley in acknowledgment of her contributions to science and literature. She is a member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, and of the Cincinnati Society of Natural History, the New York Academy of Science, and the American Chemical Society of New York city.

A recent announcement is that Mrs. Newcomb McGee of Washington, D.C., has been elected a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. She is the second woman upon whom this honor has been conferred, Maria Mitchell having been the first. Mrs. McGee is the daughter of the astronomer, Professor Simon Newcomb. She is a medical graduate of the Columbian University of Washington, and a member of the Anthropological Society.

CIVIL GOVERNMENTS.

THEIR ORIGIN, DEVELOPMENT, AND FUNCTION.

THE earliest governments existed in prehistoric times. The origin of government is therefore involved in obscurity. From the earliest times, however, men have reasoned and written much upon the subject. Aristotle, in his "Politics," defines and classifies human governments, and his definition and classification have been very generally followed.

Government may be defined as "the ruling power in a political society." This is called civil government, in distinction from all other kinds of government, such as moral government, the laws of nature, the government of a church, a society, or an association, the government of a school, and other broad uses of the word.

We have to consider two questions, viz.: The varieties in the structure of the governing body, i. e., the various forms of government; and the functions of the governing body, i. e., the sphere of government, the things which belong to the control of government. To make this matter plain, let us put it in the form of two questions:—

1. Who governs?
2. Governs in what?

The various forms of government are usually classified as follows:—

1. The monarchical, or government by one person.
2. The aristocratic, or government by a few privileged persons.

3. The democratic, or government by the people as a whole.

4. The republican, or government by representatives of the whole people.

Any one of these may be a good government or a bad government. The monarch may be a just ruler or a tyrant. The aristocracy may be a selfish and corrupt oligarchy. The "Commonwealth" may fall into the hands of unprincipled demagogues. The uncertainty of administration is so apparent and universally acknowledged that the great English poet, Pope, used this famous couplet :—

> "The forms of government let fools contest,
> Whate'er is best administered is best."

But Pope was the subject of a monarch. Few citizens of a republic will accept his statement. A bad form of government well administered may be better than the same badly administered, but a good government well administered is better still.

ORIGIN OF GOVERNMENT.

With this brief view of the forms of government, we are prepared to consider the origin and growth of government among men. Necessity is plainly the mother of invention. Government is a thing *invented*. Hence it is clear that a necessity for government existed before the government was called into being. The first institution among men was the family. The relation between husband and wife, parents and children, was before all else. Clearly the family was the foundation stone of all government. Then after the children came grandchildren, and the oldest was the ruler of all. Thence arose the tribal relation, and smaller tribes grew into larger ones.

In the nature of the case, then, society must be organized by political machinery. At first this took the form of a family, then a compound family, that is, the combined families of several brothers. After this, the gradual enlargement of these

families made a tribe or clan. Finally, several of these small tribes would combine to defend themselves against some more powerful clan, or the stronger would conquer the weaker ones and absorb them. The tribal chief would become a prince, a king, an absolute monarch.

The natural tendency everywhere is toward aggregation, consolidation, and as civilization advanced the tribe not only became a nation, but nations grew till one became the great kingdom of Persia, another Egypt, and finally Greece and Rome produced their magnificent civilizations, and the world had begun those rapid strides which have at last given us what we see to-day, especially in Europe and America.

But all this growth and development came not without causes and not without leaders. Hence we are to consider the way governments have grown, what has been the cause of each prodigious advancement.

Here we must observe the objects which governments have sought, if we would recognize their elements and reason correctly in regard to their growth and development.

THREE PERIODS—THREE LEADING OBJECTS.

We may, therefore, divide the political history of the world into three periods, in which the predominant province of government has represented three different principles.

THE MILITARY PERIOD.

In the first period, the dominating object was to protect the people from foreign enemies. At first these enemies were bands of marauders, who would sweep down upon a quiet and peaceful people, reap their ripe grain, thresh it out before their eyes and carry it away with them. Then larger and more pretentious wars would threaten ; war not merely for plunder, but for political power, and permanent military tribute. For many centuries, therefore, the governments of the world were

primarily to defend against the military strength of nations, who were either naturally or for some temporary and specific reason hostile.

This was the military period, when the prime object of government was warfare, defensive on the one side but offensive and aggressive on the other. Ancient Persia, Media, and Egypt; and, later, Greece, Carthage, and Rome were examples of this class. Ancient history is largely a record of wars. The incidents of battles, of campaigns, of catapults, chariots, heavy and light armed men, of stratagems, advances and retreats,—these make both warp and woof of the history of antiquity. Read the lives of Cyrus and Darius, the Rameses, Philip and Alexander, Hannibal and Cæsar, and you have little but the record of their long marches, wonderful exploits, and brilliant successes upon the battle field. Their treaties were not treaties of peace, amity, and *commerce*, but of subjugation, subordination, and tribute. The law which governed all things was the law of might, and never the law of right.

When Alexander had taken a famous Mediterranean pirate prisoner, he demanded of him by what right he committed his robberies. The robber replied: "I am a robber by the same right that you are a conqueror. The only difference between us is that I have but a few men and can do but little mischief; while you have a large army and can do a great deal."

When Brennus, the Gaul, invaded Greece with an army of more than one hundred and fifty thousand men he marched against Delphi, intending to enrich himself with the treasures of the magnificent temple of Apollo. "A deity, like Apollo," said he, "does not need these treasures. I am only a man, and they are just what I want." This was military government.

POLICE GOVERNMENT.

In process of time, during the intervals between wars, the necessity arose for protection not only from enemies without

but also from wrongdoers within. Then government began to turn its attention to restraining violence and other injustice among the citizens themselves. Hence arose a second distinctive feature of government, which may be called the police nction. This feature of government grew and formed itself ito many specific rules and laws, regulating the conduct of inividual members of society, all calculated to restrain wronging and to protect the rights of person and property among e citizens dwelling within the country or district over which e government held sway. In accordance with this ideal government, Aristotle places justice as the corner stone. e says: "Justice is the bond of men in states, and the adinistration of justice, which is the determination of what is st, is the principle of order in political society."

Protection from lawlessness, violence, any and every iningement of the rights of property and person, gave rise to des of civil law. The Mosaic code was the earliest of which e have any full record. Sparta had her code, and finally ome, imperial Rome, boasting her own original and superior stem, formulated the general principles of modern jurisprunce, which, modified to fit the peculiarities of different nations id diverse peoples, forms the basis of the national governents of Europe and America to-day.

POLITICAL CORPORATION "TO PROMOTE THE GENERAL WELFARE."

So far we have considered but two phases of government:—

1. Its military power.
2. Its police power.

But in the forward march of humanity government has taken itself—and that too from sheer necessity—another and far gher, wider, deeper, and more important function,—"to omote the general welfare." Government to-day is a great olitical corporation, whose duty it is to take such measures as ill best conduce to the highest welfare, and the greatest happi-

ness of the people, with constant reference to the thought t the present generation is bound to provide for future gen tions the best possible conditions for their development i happiness. Our United States Constitution has it expresse this way: "to promote the general welfare and to secure blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

This new conception of government has been growing centuries and has entered into the definitions of the wor given by the leading authorities. Aristotle says: "The i vidual when isolated is not self-sufficient. He is only a and, therefore, related to the whole." His oft-repeated n is, "Man is born to be a citizen." Wheaton's Internati Law defines a State as "a body politic, a society of men u together for the purpose of promoting their *mutual adva* by their combined strength." Dr. Hinsdale says: "The being of society, particularly advanced society, requir great many things to be done [by the government] which not embraced in justice."

The preamble of the United States Constitution summa the objects of civil government in a manner that cannot haps be surpassed. Those objects it states are:—

1. To establish justice.
2. To insure domestic tranquillity.
3. To provide for the common defense.
4. To promote the general welfare.
5. To secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and posterity.

It will be observed that *justice* is placed first by the fa of our republic. The military feature was put third, bu though rising to a climax the last two points mentioned that broad and sweeping clause, "to promote the general fare," and, "to secure the blessings of liberty"—i. e., th vantages of a free government—to the people of the cou not only to those then in existence, but to those also

generation after generation, should come after. Here surely is a broad and statesmanlike view of the province of government.

DEVELOPMENT OF GOVERNMENT.

The process of broadening out government beyond the military and the police functions began many centuries ago. Rome was conspicuous for her efforts for the "public welfare." She carried out a great system of public works. Splendid roads were built by the government from all sections of Italy,—all "leading to Rome." These roads remain to this day, two thousand years after their construction. Fine stone bridges were built across the Tiber; the city had a complete system of sewerage; the streets were paved and aqueducts for supplying the city with water were built a century and a half before the Christian era, at a cost of many million dollars.

But it has been reserved for modern times, particularly for the English-speaking nations, to carry forward to still higher success, and on broader plans, movements for the general welfare.

THE POSTAL SERVICE.

Conspicuous among the modern improvements is the post office system for carrying to and from all parts of the country, and of the world even, letters, newspapers, periodicals, books, and even merchandise.

This government postal service would seem to have been begun by the Hanse towns in Germany about the twelfth century. A regular postal system was established in England in the time of Henry VIII., in the first half of the sixteenth century. This system existed in our country from the time of its earliest settlements. At the present time we have over seventy thousand post offices and more than two hundred thousand persons are employed in the postal service. The post offices in this country transmit in a single year more than ten thousand million pieces of mail matter.

THE PUBLIC WELFARE IN THE UNITED STATES.

At the present time our government—state and nati is giving special attention to the following matters of welfare :—

1. The postal service.
2. Free education of youth.
3. Public roads and other public works.
4. Lighthouses.
5. Harbor protection and improvement.
6. The coast survey.
7. The weather bureau.
8. Real estate records.
9. Care of public health.
10. Care of the defective classes, such as the blind, etc.

The inquiry may seem pertinent just here, how far th ernment should go in assuming control and carryin ward works for the public good. If it controls the carry the mails, why may it not control all mercantile expres ness? If it carries letters, why should it not attend sending of intelligence by the magnetic telegraph, and by of reasoning the telephone, and perhaps the charge of other matters for the public good? Great Britain has, long time, had her system of public telegraphs, under the agement of the government, and she has, but just now, the initiative for a general system of telephones.

The correct reasoning in this matter would seem to b whatever the public good requires the government to und should be undertaken by the government, but whatev people in their individual capacity, or by combining in rations, can do and will be likely to do as well, should be their hands. The "paternal plan" for the government w be conducive to the best interests of the people or to the g of civilization.

GOVERNMENTS.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A STATE?

We have followed the growth and development of government as to its origin, causes, forms, and province. It remains for us to consider the truth or the falsity of Pope's famous couplet, already quoted :—

> "The forms of government let fools contest,
> Whate'er is best administered is best."

It should require no long course of logical argument to show, t this day in the world's history, that this statement is grossly isleading, to say the least. It would seem like a very weak efense of monarchy made in abject fear of the monarch. ather let us approve the sentiment of Emerson, when he ays :—

> "God said, 'I am tired of kings,
> I suffer them no more ;
> Up to my ear the morning brings
> The outrage of the poor.
> * * * * * * *
> "'I will have never a noble ;
> No lineage counted great ;
> Fishers and choppers and ploughmen
> Shall constitute a State.'"

This is the straight, blunt way in which the New England hilosopher expresses his thought. But the courtly, scholarly ir William Jones, who, born in London, spent most of his time n the Orient and who was as famous for his Christian virtues s for his vast erudition, has given to mankind the following nes, which in themselves only expand what Aristotle the Just ad uttered five centuries before the Christian era. The old ttican said :—

"Neither walls, theaters, porches, nor senseless equipage ake states, but men who are able to rely upon themselves."

Sir William Jones expresses the sentiment in this way :—

"What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement nor labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Nor cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Nor starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No; men—high minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude;
Men, who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing dare maintain.

* * * * * * * * * *

And sovereign law, that state's collected will
O'er thrones and globes elate,
Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill."

In the upbuilding of the world the evolution of goverment had a prominent part. Men in the past, though hampered military governments and dwarfed by monarchical domi tion, have done much toward the uplifting of the race. In early times strength was of the first importance. Men m defend their own against aggressive assaults from withc Leaders, especially military leaders, were a prime necess But when these leaders had developed into such aggressive selfish monarchs as Alexander, Cæsar, and Napoleon, the re tion came. Families had grown into tribes, tribes into ki doms and empires, until the world was cursed with irrespo ble absolute monarchs. Then absolutism had culminated. recalled the sentiment of Aristotle. The king was no lon the state. This was the beginning of constitutions and bills rights.

Perhaps no one thing will illustrate that uplifting of people and the improvement of human governments be than a comparison of the treatment of criminals and pers

pected of crime in the ages of tyrannical monarchies and at present time. During the middle ages torture was comnly and almost universally practiced to extract evidence m unwilling witnesses, or confessions from accused persons. rrible punishments were constantly inflicted in the sixteenth d seventeenth centuries. These tortures included the crushg of thumbs, feet, or head in iron apparatus; burning the les, arms, or finger nails with fire or red-hot irons and ncers; flogging; the pillory; thumb-screws; stocks; ducking ool; starvation: the rack; the boot; breaking on the wheel; rning at the stake; disemboweling, etc. It is to be regretted at truth compels us to say that while all these have disapeared from the statute books and the practices of Christian ations, yet among the despotisms of the East many of these arbarous punishments are still in use.

As a contrast observe the rights of criminals guaranteed by ermanent constitutions, in our country to-day.

1. BEFORE TRIAL.

(a) Security against unwarrantable searches and seizures.

(b) Privilege of bail, except in capital offenses, and guarantee against excessive bail.

(c) No warrant but upon probable cause.

(d) Presented or indicted by the grand jury.

2. WHILE ON TRIAL.

(a) "The right to a speedy and public trial."

(b) A jury of his peers.

(c) Confronted with witnesses against him.

(d) Compulsory process for witnesses in his favor.

(e) Counsel for his defense.

(f) Not compelled to be a witness against himself.

(g) He shall not be "deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law."

3. AFTER TRIAL.

(*a*) Not subject for the same offense to be "twice put in jeopardy of life or limb."

(*b*) "No cruel or unusual punishment shall be inflicted."

Then it may be mentioned that the accused has, under the law, the right of appeal from a lower to a higher court, and that every person is to be considered innocent till he has been proved guilty.

MAGNA CHARTA.

When the people of England wrested their Magna Charta from King John, then began the English constitution and the abridgment of the power of the king. Then also began the real power of the House of Commons, "the archetype of all the representative assemblies which now exist, either in the Old World or in the New."

Macaulay, in speaking of the great charter, says: "Here commences the history of the English nation. The history of the preceding events is the history of wrongs inflicted and sustained by various tribes, which, indeed, dwelt on English ground, but which regarded each other with aversion such as has scarcely ever existed between communities separated by natural barriers." But the liberties of the people had begun to be respected and Great Britain was a constitutional monarchy, when the people had asked and the king had granted:—

1. No tax to be levied without the sanction of Parliament.

2. No law can be made, altered, or repealed without Parliament.

3. No man can be fined, or imprisoned, his property or liberty impaired, or in any way punished except after lawful trial.

4. Trial by jury.

5. Justice shall not be sold or delayed.

The condition of England fixed also the condition of future America. Hence it is that we have to-day, as Rufus Choate

puts it, "a state without king or nobles, a church without a bishop, a people governed by grave magistrates which it had elected and by equal laws which it had framed." Hence it is that the American child of English parentage can boast of a "Ship of State." Hence it is that our own Longfellow can sing :—

"Sail on, O Union, strong and great !
Humanity with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate.
* * * * * * *
In spite of rock and tempest's roar,
In spite of false lights on the shore,
Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea !
Our hearts, our hopes, are all with thee,
Our hearts, our hopes, our prayers, our tears,
Our faith triumphant o'er our fears,
Are all with thee,—are all with thee !"

All this is a development, it is an evolution. It illustrates the survival of the fittest. It points to the onward and upward tendency of the race. From an unlimited monarchy, an arbitrary despotism, man wrested from imperialism a constitution. Then he threw off allegiance and asserted Calvin's principle as applied to politics. Not merely the equality of men before God, but the equality of men before the law. So the race gravitated from a constitutional monarchy to a constitutional republic.

It was a long century of progress from William to John ; a greater stride from John to James ; from James to George was another great century ; but it was in the extended reign of George III. that the great Republic of America was evolved and that constitution formed which the greatest statesman of this century,—Englishman though he be,—Gladstone, has pronounced "the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man," and the adoption of which Washington declared to be "little short of a miracle."

THE GREAT AMERICAN REPUBLIC.

Under this constitution the young American Republ grown to be the most progressive, most enterprising, r practically the largest and most prosperous of the nat the earth to-day. She has more than seventy million scattered over more than three and a half million of miles of territory, embracing more than fifty degrees tude and one hundred and thirty degrees of longitude.

The future growth of the country in population may by observing that while the average population of the countries of Europe is over two hundred to the squar and the average of the entire world is about twenty-s average for the United States is less than eighteen. exports now amount to more than one billion dollars and are larger in amount than the aggregate of our impo

But the end is not yet. The *Ultima Thule* has not y reached. Man has triumphed over many foes and con on many battle fields, but the new problems appear to b difficult of solution than the old ones. And no governm ever had presented to it such problems as now confr American people. We are beset with such questions as

1. The tariff.
2. The silver question.
3. The conflict between labor and capital.
4. Labor unions.
5. Strikes.
6. Anarchistic mobs.
7. The rapid increase of population.
8. The difficulty in governing large cities. Munici ruption.
9. Immense immigrations. Diversity of foreign ele Hence the unprecedented heterogeneousness of the An people.
10. The universality of suffrage.

But opposed to these fears we hope much from

1. Our immense territory.

2. Our diversities of industries.

3. The interdependence of each section and each industry upon every other.

4. The inventive genius of the Yankee.

5. Labor saving machines.

6. Great changes in methods of communication and transportation.

7. The rapid increase of wealth.

8. The general distribution of wealth among all classes.

9. The influence of the newspaper, the magazine, and the book.

10. The rapid increase of education,—elementary, secondary, higher, and professional.

11. The Americanizing tendency of our free institutions.

12. The healthy influence of individual responsibility, especially from the American principle of "freedom in religious concernments."

WHAT THE PROPHETS SAY.

In 1796 the traveler Burnaby, after passing through the "Middle Settlements of North America," wrote:—

"The present union of American States will not be permanent, or last for any considerable length of time. That extensive country must necessarily be divided into separate states and kingdoms."

John Bright, on the other hand, in December, 1862—the darkest hour of the American Republic—said:—

"I have a far other and far brighter vision before my gaze. It may be but a vision, but I see one vast confederation, stretching from the frozen north in unbroken line to the glowing south, and from the wild billows of the Atlantic, westward to the calmer waters of the Pacific main. And I see one people,

and one law, and one language, and one faith, and over all that wide continent the home of freedom and a refuge for the oppressed of every race and of every clime."

Beautiful vision! Is it a prophecy? Will it be fullfilled?

In 1853 an American writer, in closing a series of articles on the Crimean war, wrote as follows:—

"English civilization is the only civilization which has proved itself capable, in modern times, of rearing great and permanent free states. * * * The world is now rapidly tending to the aggregation or consolidation of nations into a few great empire states. England and Russia already excel the Roman empire. * * *

"Asia west of the British dominions will fall into the hands of Russia or England. China and Japan will be Anglicized or Americanized. The United States will take in the whole continent of America. * * *

"This republic should be in readiness, when called upon in the future to decide the fate of nations, to hold up for their imitation the example of a state whose institutions are more conducive to the greatest freedom and welfare of mankind than all the world has ever seen."

WOMEN AS SOVEREIGNS.

THEIR INFLUENCE AND POWER UPON THE THRONE.

"'Tis beauty that doth oft make women proud;
'Tis virtue that doth make them most admir'd;
'Tis government that makes them seem divine."

IN the world's drama, women have played a prominent part; and among the famous sovereigns, queens, as well as kings, have made their names illustrious by daring enterprises and heroic deeds.

From the dawn of history, women have been intrusted with the reins of government. We will select a few whose lives present some of the most important phases of the world's history, and see what has been the influence of woman's government generally on peoples and nations, and also the influence of the possession of power upon the individual herself.

History tells us that the first woman who held supreme power in her own right was Semiramis, queen of Assyria. The accounts given us of her are so mixed with exaggeration and mythological fiction, that it is difficult for us to know what to believe. Indeed some historians go so far as to doubt her very existence. However, it is quite unnecessary to believe all the tales concerning her, yet she has been so frequently alluded to in history, poetry, and art, that it will not be uninteresting to hear what tradition says about her.

The time of her reign is a matter of dispute but it is generally accepted as having been about 1500 years before the Christian era. She was the wife of Menones, a general under the Assyrian king, Ninus. Semiramis distinguished herself at the siege of Bactria, whither she had accompanied her husband, by

discovering the weak spot in the enemy's fortifications, and leading a company of soldiers up a bypath to the place, when they scaled the wall and entered the city.

This exploit brought her to the notice of King Ninus, who admired her so much that he demanded Menones to give him Semiramis in exchange for his own daughter, under penalty of having his eyes put out if he refused. The unhappy husband, in his despair, hung himself, and the king almost immediately married his widow. She became the mother of a son, Ninyas, and her husband dying while the child was still an infant, she was declared regent.

Another account tells us that the doting Ninus granted to his beautiful queen the absolute power in his empire for one day. As soon as she was seated on the throne, and the signet on her finger, she ordered Ninus imprisoned and afterwards strangled. She declared herself his successor and during the rest of her life retained supreme control of the kingdom. She was only twenty years of age when she began to reign and she resolved to immortalize her name by magnificent undertakings. She built enormous aqueducts and bridges, connected her cities with roads, and is said to have built Babylon with its great walls, temples, brass gates, and hanging gardens. Indeed it would be difficult to believe all that is told of the great works she performed if in that country there did not still exist ruins which prove on what a stupendous scale the ancients worked to make their names immortal.

After a reign of forty-two years, during which Assyria enjoyed more prosperity than ever before, Semiramis abdicated her throne and retired from the world, or, as others say, was put to death by her son.

CLEOPATRA.

If doubt has been felt as to the reality of Semiramis, none has existed as to the personality of Cleopatra, the Egyptian

queen. While she has not given to posterity the magnificent achievements of the Assyrian queen, she has bequeathed to us a name—a spell upon the imagination that no other woman has ever done.

Cleopatra was born 69 B. C., the daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, one of the wickedest monarchs of that line. When she was eighteen years old, her father died and by his will she was to marry her young brother Ptolemy and reign jointly with him. Two statesmen, Pothinus and Achillas, really administered the government as both Cleopatra and her brother were too young. Thinking that by retaining their hold on Ptolemy, who was only thirteen years old, they could get entire control of the empire, they dethroned Cleopatra.

She at once fled to Syria, raised an army, and marched back to Egypt. Pothinus and Achillas leading a large army met her near Pelusium.

Julius Cæsar now appears upon the scene and, owing to his influence, no battle was fought. He claimed that by Ptolemy Auletes's will, the Roman people were made executors and that it was his place as their representative to decide which was the rightful claimant.

Cleopatra determined to plead her cause before Cæsar himself, and, knowing that if she ventured inside the city undisguised she would be captured, she hit upon a novel scheme. Dismissing her retinue outside the city gates, she commanded one of her slaves to roll her up in a bundle of carpeting, and, under pretense of taking Cæsar a present, to carry her into the presence of the Roman. The plan was successfully carried out, and the bale unrolled under the eyes of the wondering Cæsar. Cleopatra was about twenty-one years old at this time, and already renowned for her slender, graceful figure and melodious voice, while her face was beautiful, not so much from regularity of feature, as for its bewitching charm of expression. Add to this her quick wit, winning sweetness of manner, and her

perfect understanding of human character, and wonder not that the heart of the stern Roman was captured by this "Enchantress of the Nile," and that her cause was soon his own.

His decision in Cleopatra's favor led to the Alexandrian War, during which the famous library at Alexandria was destroyed by fire, and Ptolemy met his death. When Cæsar returned to Rome at the close of the war, Cleopatra followed him with their infant son, Cæsarion, and her youngest brother, Ptolemy, who reigned with her as king of Egypt. Upon the death of Cæsar four years later, Cleopatra, fearing her life in danger, fled secretly to Egypt. Her brother had now become old enough to take his share in the government, and, being in the way of Cleopatra's ambition, she had him poisoned, and thenceforth ruled alone.

It was thought by some of the Romans that Cleopatra was connected with the conspiracy against Cæsar. To clear herself of the accusation she was summoned to appear before Mark Antony, then at Tarsus. She took her own time to make the journey, and, reaching the river Cydnus, embarked there to take that voyage famous from the descriptions of Shakespeare and Dryden, although it is doubtful if the poet's imagination could embellish the gorgeousness of the reality.

Magnificently dressed, like the goddess Venus, Cleopatra gracefully reclined on a couch under a canopy of cloth of gold, attended by beautiful boys winged to represent cupids. Her maids as nereids and graces steered the vessel, which was propelled by silver oars and silken sails, while its poop was of beaten gold. Very different from the way she first appeared before Cæsar! But with her quick insight she had mastered Antony's character, and appealed to it, in its weak place—his vanity and love of display. He vied with her extravagance and gorgeousness, and the result was a succession of entertainments, the magnificence of which has never been surpassed.

For her sake, Antony gave up the expedition upon which he had started and returned with her to Alexandria, where forgetful alike of duty, wife, and children, he passed his time in a continual round of gayety. After some time a peremptory summons came from Rome that he dared not disobey, so reluctantly he departed for the imperial city. His wife Fulvia dead, he married the noble Octavia, sister of Octavius, and for a time seemed to have forgotten the "Siren of the Nile." Cleopatra meanwhile spent her time quietly in governing her empire and promoting internal improvements.

Trouble having arisen in the East, Antony was called on to quell the disturbance. When he reached Asia Minor, Cleopatra met him with troops, provisions, and money for his assistance. The old fascination reasserted itself and again he forgot duty and honor in the presence of the woman he loved. His wife Octavia came out to him but he repelled her and sent her back to Rome. The haughty Octavius could endure no more, and at this insult prepared for open war. Antony, in deference to Cleopatra's wishes, decided on a naval engagement and the fleets sailed toward Actium, Cleopatra accompanying Antony in her magnificent galley.

While the battle still raged and Antony's chances were as good as those of Cæsar, Cleopatra fled from the scene in fright. Antony, seeing her departure, forgot everything and in a wild impulse followed her to Alexandria, leaving his brave soldiers to fight it out alone.

Upon Cæsar's approach to the city, Cleopatra ordered her most precious treasures to be taken to her tomb, together with vast quantities of tow and other combustibles, that she might be able to destroy herself and her treasures by fire, rather than allow them to fall into the hands of the enemy.

Antony meantime was preparing a final defense and had resolved to attack Octavius by land and sea. What was his horror on beginning the battle to see Cleopatra's admiral strike

his flag and take his entire fleet over to the enemy. This treason made Antony aware of Cleopatra's treachery but, on reaching her retreat to upbraid her, he was told, by her orders, that she was dead—had killed herself. Hearing this, Antony's love conquered his hate and, going to his palace, he fell upon his sword. Just then an officer arrived from the queen to inform him that she was alive. Hearing the beloved name, Antony opened his eyes and begged to be taken to her. Cleopatra, fearing her enemies might surprise her if she unbarred the gate, had him drawn up through a window. Antony recovered consciousness for a few moments and sought to comfort her by saying that he was happy to die in her arms.

Octavius was very desirous of having Cleopatra grace his triumph at Rome. In order to escape this ignominy, Cleopatra, having first tried in vain to captivate the conqueror, resolved to kill herself. In her experiments with poisons, she had found that the speediest and least painful death was caused by the bite of an asp.

After paying a last visit to the tomb of Antony, she returned, bathed, dressed herself in her most queenly robes, and partook of the sumptuous repast she had ordered. After writing to Octavius Cæsar, she commanded that a servant with a basket of figs be admitted. She examined them and afterwards lay down and appeared to sleep. The poison of the asp hidden among the figs, and which had stung her on the arm, had caused her death painlessly and almost instantly.

"Thus perished the famous Cleopatra, whose marvelous attractions and enchanting fascinations of beauty and unequaled display of pomp and royal magnificence make parts of her story to read like the wonderful tales of the Arabian Nights."

QUEEN ISABELLA.

Let us now turn our attention from these two pagan queens to one of the most enlightened monarchs of the Middle Ages.

Isabella, surnamed "the Catholic," queen of Castile and Leon, was born at Madrigal in 1451, the daughter of John II. and his wife, Isabella of Portugal. Four years later upon the death of her father, her half brother Henry ascended the throne and her mother immediately retired from the court and brought up Isabella in deep seclusion.

Henry, a weak, inefficient monarch, disgusted his nobles to such an extent that they made proposals to Isabella to accept the crown. She with characteristic firmness replied that it was not theirs to bestow, and that while her brother Henry existed, nothing should induce her to assume a title which was his by the laws of God and man.

Among the many suitors for Isabella's hand, and the one she regarded with most favor, was Ferdinand of Aragon. Henry was so opposed to this match that the young people were obliged to be married secretly and, separating after the ceremony, saw each other only at rare intervals for several years.

Henry died in 1474 and Isabella and Ferdinand were immediately and almost without opposition proclaimed king and queen of Castile. The first months of her reign were occupied with internal dissensions and in repelling an invasion from Portugal. Matters were conducted with such firmness during this time that the foundation was laid for the vigorous policy she henceforth adopted. Her influence upon the court was such that, from the corrupt and immoral conditions existing in Henry's time, it became "the nursery of virtue and generous ambition."

Her chief fault, and one almost excusable in that age and with her surroundings, was that her religious zeal tended to bigotry and led her to repose too much confidence in her priestly advisers. It is impossible to account for her vigor in pursuing the wars with Granada, which resulted in the ultimate overthrow of Moorish power in Spain, otherwise than from a desire to obliterate heathendom from that corner of Europe;

for Isabella was gentle and peace-loving and would never have consented to causing so much suffering and bloodshed unless she thought she was doing the will of heaven. The one blot on her reign is the establishment of the Inquisition and the persecution of the Jews.

But in contrast to this error is the happy intuition which led her to repose faith in the scheme of Columbus when all others had denied its practicability and to recall him to her court with the words, "I will assume the undertaking for my own crown of Castile and am ready to pawn my jewels to defray the expenses of it, if the funds in the treasury should be found inadequate."

The last days of Isabella were saddened by severe family losses. Her eldest daughter and most confidential friend died a few months after her young husband, leaving an infant, who only survived her a short time. Her son, Prince Juan, died suddenly after a short illness. Her daughter Catherine, afterwards the unfortunate wife of Henry VIII., had just lost her first husband, Prince Arthur, and the mind of her youngest daughter, Joanna, was sadly affected.

The grief from these terrible domestic calamities shortened Isabella's life and she died at Medina del Campo in 1504, having reigned thirty-one years.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, ascended the throne of England upon the death of her half sister, Mary, in 1558, amidst the general rejoicing of her people. She was at that time twenty-five years of age, of prepossessing appearance, and began her reign with great moderation, treating all with courtesy and gentleness.

One of her first acts was to re-enact the laws of King Edward concerning religion, thus confirming the expectation that she would take her place among the Protestant rulers. She remained

at the head of the Established Church until her death, although in her devotions she leaned strongly toward Catholic observances, and persecuted Puritans as well as Catholics.

The first eleven years of her reign were distinguished for internal peace and quiet. Elizabeth placed Cecil at the head of affairs, and, with his skill and statesmanship, he more than fulfilled the trust. "The mainspring of her foreign policy was to maintain the security of her own throne and to prevent foreign interference in England."

Many offers were made for the honor of Elizabeth's hand. Among the suitors were her brother-in-law, Philip II. of Spain, the Earl of Leicester, Archduke Charles of Vienna, Prince Eric of Sweden, Henry of Anjou, afterward Henry III. of France, and his brother, the Duke of Anjou. Parliament repeatedly urged her to marry, but she answered that she desired no higher distinction than to have engraved on her tombstone, "Here lies Elizabeth, who lived and died a maiden queen." It has been thought that as reasons of state prevented her marriage with the Earl of Leicester, she determined never to marry, although she coquetted with each successive suitor and was always angry when he wedded some one else.

The blackest stain on the character and administration of Elizabeth is the treatment of the beautiful but unhappy Mary, Queen of Scots. Younger, and far handsomer than Elizabeth, she incurred the latter's jealousy, while the fact that she was a Catholic caused the oppressed of that faith in England to look to her for succor.

Upon the suspicious death of her husband, Lord Darnley, and her subsequent sudden marriage to the Earl of Bothwell, a confederation of Scotch nobles took place. They took the queen prisoner, compelled her to abdicate her throne in favor of her infant son, James, and confined her in Loch Leven Castle. Thence she escaped, raised an army, and was defeated. She then fled to England and threw herself upon the protection of

Elizabeth. But instead of hospitality, she found herself a prisoner for life. From one castle to another she was taken till at last, nineteen years later, she was beheaded at Fotheringay. As long as she was imprisoned in the country, conspiracies were formed to secure her liberty and place her on the throne, some say at the expense of Elizabeth's life. Mary made repeated avowals of innocence but, in spite of all, was declared guilty. Amid the conflicting statements it is impossible to know the truth respecting this unfortunate queen. That she made mistakes and grave ones, too, cannot be doubted; neither can her lovable disposition, for her servants and friends loved her dearly, and were true to her till death. Her little dog, it is said, died of grief beside her bed. No friends or dumb brute ever showed such love for her successful rival, Elizabeth.

To revenge the death of this Catholic queen and to re-establish the Catholic religion were the reasons assigned for the invasion by the "Invincible Armada." But it is not improbable that Philip wished also to be revenged upon the English ships which, under Frobisher and Drake, had made such deep inroads upon the treasure brought from the New World in the Spanish ships.

The Armada consisted of one hundred and fifty ships bearing three thousand guns and twenty-seven thousand men. England gathered all her resources to repel this invasion and the queen herself rode through the camp at Tilbury encouraging the men by her words and presence. As the Spanish fleet sailed up the Channel, it was attacked by a small squadron under Lord Howard assisted by Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins, and, owing to the superior skill and courage of the English, the Armada was nearly destroyed. Unable to land, the Spanish admiral attempted to return to Spain by sailing around Scotland. Near the Orkneys he encountered a storm which completed the work of the English vessels.

Upon the death of the Earl of Leicester, his stepson, the Earl

of Essex, succeeded in the queen's affections. An insurrection having broken out in Ireland, Essex was sent to quell it but failed disgracefully. He returned without orders from Elizabeth, was arrested, and deprived of his office. In revenge for this disgrace he attempted to raise a rebellion against her government. Failing in this he was seized and thrown into the tower. He was found guilty of treason and the queen, with great reluctance, signed his death warrant.

Elizabeth survived this event but a short time. The friends and councilors of her younger days were dead, and the last years of her life were lonely ones. Her despotism as she grew older had weaned the affections of her people from her and unloved, unmourned, she passed unconsciously away March 24, 1603, in the forty-fifth year of her reign and the seventieth year of her age.

The character of Elizabeth, although she had some noble traits, is never a pleasing one to survey. Her vanity, parsimony, rough ways, and immodesty make her fall far short of our ideal of a queenly woman. As has been truly said of her,—"the Virgin Queen nearly stands revealed in history as cruel, capricious, insincere, at once unpleasantly masculine and weakly feminine, but she was highly popular with her subjects and this popularity cannot be explained away by circumstances outside of herself. She had unquestionably the faculty—in her case it amounted to genius—of selecting for her advisers on political affairs the most capable of the men around her."

England's true greatness began at this time but the splendor of the period came not from Elizabeth but from her illustrious contemporaries. The first theater was built during her reign and the first English comedy and tragedy were written. This dramatic tendency called forth the great dramatists. Through the efforts of Frobisher, Drake, and Hawkins the commerce of the country was developed and the foundation of her naval power laid. All traces of bondage disappeared

and the right of the Commons to free speech and to initiate all money bills, urged. Sir Walter Raleigh introduced the culture of the potato and the Flemish immigrants began the manufacture of cloth, for which England has been celebrated ever since. Much attention was paid to architecture and the laying out of gardens, terraces, and parks.

But the glory of the Elizabethan era was the unequaled literature which arose and which embraces the works of John Lilly, Christopher Marlowe, "rare Ben Jonson," Lord Bacon, Spenser, and, greatest of all, the "Bard of Avon"—the immortal Shakespeare.

MARIA THERESA.

Maria Theresa, empress of Germany, succeeded to the vast hereditary estates of the House of Hapsburg by means of a famous treaty known as the Pragmatic Sanction. She was at the time twenty-three years of age, had been married to Francis Stephen, Grand Duke of Tuscany, four years, and was the mother of two handsome children.

She found on ascending the throne, that the condition of the country, due to her father's incapacity and mismanagement, was most deplorable. The treasury was embarrassed, the kingdom exhausted, and the people discontented. Prussia, France, Naples, Bavaria, Saxony, and Sardinia took advantage of this weakened condition and each wrested some part of her dominions from her. The young queen, ill-prepared by her education and early training for such an emergency, and having a husband less able to advise than she herself, was in sore danger of losing all her possessions. In this time of peril, the inspiration came to her to appeal to that ill-used portion of her realm, Hungary. Nor was the appeal in vain.

Where in history is there a more dramatic scene than that enacted before the Diet of Hungary, when, dressed in deep mourning for her father, she thus addressed the assembled

nobles: "The disastrous state of our affairs has moved us to lay before our dear and faithful states of Hungary the recent invasion of Austria, the danger impending over this kingdom, and to propose to them a remedy. The very existence of the kingdom of Hungary, of our own person, of our children, and our crown, are now at stake, and, forsaken by all, we place our sole hope in the fidelity, arms, and long tried valor of the Hungarians!"

Her beauty and distress inspired the Hungarian nobles to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. They exclaimed with one accord, "Our swords and our blood for your majesty—we will die for our *king*—Maria Theresa!"

The fidelity of these brave subjects and the help from Britain which soon arrived, saved the queen, and by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which closed the War of the Austrian Succession, she lost only Silesia, Glatz, and three of her Italian duchies, while her husband was elected emperor.

The loss of Silesia was a severe blow to her, and not until the close of her life did she lose the bitterness with which she regarded her antagonist, Frederick II. of Prussia. For a long time she could not hear the word "Silesia" without blushing. It was this blow to her pride which, after eight years of peace, led her to make an alliance with France, the hereditary enemy of her country, as the only means of humbling her enemy, the king of Prussia. The measure was unpopular, but Maria Theresa had her way, and the terrible Seven Years' War followed with its vicissitudes of victory and defeat, and its terrible loss of human life. At its close, matters stood just as before, each possessing the same territory.

The empress resumed the task of promoting the national prosperity interrupted by the war, and succeeded in bringing about many measures which endeared her still more to the hearts of her loyal subjects. She made important military changes, establishing a military academy at Vienna; she

abolished torture and made many changes in the penal code; financial reforms were instituted which greatly increased the revenues of the country; she encouraged agriculture in many ways, established schools, and reformed some of the abuses in the church. Among the latter may be mentioned the suppression of the Inquisition in Milan; priests were prohibited from being present when wills were made, the right of asylum in churches was abolished, and the order of Jesuits suppressed.

Although a firm Catholic she never allowed anyone, not even the pope, to interfere in the administration of her government. Prince Kaunitz, her chancellor, was a statesman of rare merit and ably abetted her in her reforms, but hers was always the master mind.

In 1765, Emperor Francis was suddenly stricken with apoplexy at the theater, and expired almost immediately. Maria Theresa had ardently loved her husband in her youth, and in the years of married life her love had never wavered. Her grief for him continued as long as she lived; she wore mourning the rest of her life, and spent the eighteenth of each month in devotions at his tomb.

She was the mother of sixteen children, several of whom died of smallpox. She also had the dread disease. Her losses from this malady led her to introduce inoculation and to establish hospitals for smallpox patients.

It is a great pity that she allowed herself to be persuaded to join in the partition of Poland. She resisted the plan for several years, and finally obtained the consent of the pope before she would join the others.

Maria Theresa died November 29, 1780, in her sixty-fourth year, but the regret of her family and people did not end at her funeral. Years afterward her subjects spoke of her as the "Mother of her people." Surely no queen had ever a nobler title!

QUEEN VICTORIA.

'ictoria, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and and and Empress of India, is the daughter of the Duke of it, fourth son of George IV., and was born at Kensington, r 24, 1819. Her father dying when she was eight months , her mother was left alone to fulfill the important duty of nging up her young daughter in such a manner as should r prepare her for her responsible position. Most admirably . the Duchess of Kent perform her task. The princess had ı best of instructors in all branches of learning, her govern- ; being Baroness Lehzen. In her fifth year, the Rev. George .vys, afterwards Bishop of Peterborough, became her in- uctor. Besides the learning obtained from books, the young d was taught as well how to preserve her health by judi- ous exercise and outdoor amusements.

She was not told that she was heir to the throne till she was 'elve years of age. When informed of this fact she said in a oughtful way for so young a child: "It is a very solemn ing. Many a child would boast but they don't know the diffi- lty. There is splendor but there is responsibility;" then ith an expressive gesture she continued earnestly, "I will be ood."

At five o'clock on the morning of June 20, 1837, the Princess ictoria was roused from her slumbers and taken to her dress- g room where, in her dressing gown, her hair down her back, ıd slippers on her bare feet, she received the Archbishop of anterbury, the Marquis of Conyngham, and Sir Henry Hal- rd, who came to announce that her uncle, William IV., was ad and to offer their allegiance to the young queen. It was year later before the coronation took place in Westminster bbey. The following description of that event is thus given ' an eyewitness :—

"At a quarter past twelve the procession began to arrive at

Westminster Abbey, and by an hour later the whole had been absorbed in the cathedral. I need not describe the procession in full but will mention a few details. Nothing more brilliant could be seen than all the beautiful horses with their rich harness, the carriages and grooms covered with gold embroideries, and the splendidly dressed people inside. All this, too, was encircled by the venerable gray buildings and the crowds of common people under the dull sky, which was only now and then pierced by sunbeams. But when the golden fairy-like carriage, supported by Tritons with their tridents, and surmounted by the great crown of England drove up, and the graceful girl was seen bowing right and left, when at that instant the mass of people was completely hidden by their waving handkerchiefs and raised hats, while one roar of cheering almost drowned the pealing of the bells, the blare of the trumpets, and thundering of the guns, one had to pinch himself to make sure it was not all a dream out of the Arabian Nights. Then fell a sudden silence, the silence of a church, after the queen had entered the cathedral. She appeared in a robe of crimson velvet, furred with ermine and embroidered with gold, the collar of the Order of the Garter round her neck and a small circlet of gold round her head. Three swords were carried before her, the emblems of justice, of defense, and the blunted Curtana—the sword of mercy, betokening that the sovereign alone can pardon a convicted criminal. Her train was borne by the eight fairest girls to be found among the daughters of the dukes and marquises, all in cloth of silver with roses in their hair. After rising from her devotions at the foot of the throne, the Archbishop of Canterbury turned her round to each of the four corners of the Abbey, saying in a voice so clear that it was heard in the inmost recesses, 'Sirs, I here present unto you the undoubted queen of this realm. Will ye all swear to do her homage?' Each time he said it there were shouts of 'Long live Queen Victoria!' and sounding of trumpets and the

ng of banners which made the poor little queen turn first red and then very pale." Interesting as it is, we cannot to read farther, but must pass on to the next important in her life.

October, 1839, Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, and his er were invited to make a visit at Windsor. The prince ı ignorance as to any special object in this visit, but the queen's family had for some time decided on him as the nd for Victoria. Friendship ripened into a warmer regard ıs the prerogative of royalty, Victoria offered Albert her and hand and was accepted. The wedding took place 0, 1840, and the marriage up to the time of Prince Albert's in 1862 was undoubtedly one of the happiest ever con- d by royal parties.

e prince was of a shy and retiring disposition except g his intimates, and those loved and admired him greatly. as very handsome, tall, with regular features and a face d up by bright blue eyes and a sweet though rare smile. ıd received a careful education and was especially accom- d in both art and music, of which he was very fond. ver courted popularity, and, while advising his wife and ıg her in her work, he always remained in the back- ıd. giving the queen the prominent part. With a delicacy act which it is difficult to describe, the prince became the ious patron of arts and learning and national commerce; ıis was not merely courtly favor, for to his working hand ar-seeing eye we owe the great exhibition of 1851, and the ıational of 1862; the foundation of schools of science and hroughout the country; and the advancement of Great in in the industrial arts, as well as in the arts of design, n a few years, with a success exceeding half a century of er growth.

ıeen Victoria and the Prince Consort have had nine chil- : the Princess Royal, Victoria, afterwards Empress of

Germany; Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, heir-apparent to the throne; Princess Alice; Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh; Princess Helena; Princess Louise; Prince Arthur; Prince Leopold, and Princess Beatrice. The children were carefully guarded by both parents and their education was diligently watched. The best governesses and masters were sought, that the royal children might have the best instruction possible.

In the midst of this happy, devoted home life spent at Windsor, Osborne, and Balmoral, Victoria has never for an instant neglected her public duties. In her reign of remarkable length and prosperity, many abuses have been rectified and the country has gained more in material welfare than under any other monarch. In a short article, many of these changes must be omitted, but among the more important may be mentioned: the establishment of the penny postage; abolition of the corn laws; the transfer of the East India Company to the crown; the abolition of purchase in the army; the discovery of gold in Australia and British Columbia; the discovery of the Northwest passage; and the severity of the criminal law has been greatly mitigated; the national schools have been improved, and societies established for the spread of knowledge among the people.

England during the good queen's reign has not escaped one dreadful calamity—war. There have been the terrible war in the Crimea with Russia, and the Indian mutiny with the horrors of Delhi, Cawnpoor, and Lucknow. Of later date are the Abyssinian, Ashantee, Afghan, and Zulu wars.

Among the prominent men in public life during this period have been Viscount Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Richard Cobden, the Duke of Wellington, Sir Charles Napier, Lord John Russell, Disraeli, Lord Wolseley, General Gordon, and Gladstone. Among the scientists may be mentioned Darwin, Huxley, and Tyndall.

The Victorian era has fulfilled the promise of the Elizabethan age. The literature of the period is enriched by the poets Ten-

tyson and the Brownings; the novelists Bulwer, Thackeray, Dickens, and George Eliot; the historians and essayists Macaulay, De Quincey, and Carlyle, and many others who in every department of prose or poetry have shed luster upon the English language.

The achievements of art and science during this reign have surpassed those of preceding centuries and bring to the poorest comforts and conveniences unknown to kings and nobles in the past. Railroads intersect the country in all directions; ocean steamships have revolutionized navigation and commerce; the telegraph and cable have brought the uttermost corners of the earth to our doors, while the improvements in printing and the steam printing press have greatly aided in the diffusion of knowledge, and enlarged the number of journals, periodicals, and books circulated among the people.

Of late years the queen has passed her time quietly between her different places of residence, attending to the many duties devolving upon the sovereign of such an empire. In 1887 occurred the celebration in honor of the Queen's Jubilee, when gifts and congratulations poured in from all quarters of the globe to the sovereign "whose personal character commends not only loyalty, but love and reverence, whose heart beats for all that is high and noble, who sympathizes with all suffering, guides all wholesome effort, and discourages all that is foul or cruel."

THE WORLD'S STATESMEN.

THEIR INFLUENCE AND POWER IN SHAPING NATIONS.

IN the world's great drama, statesmen have always played a very important part.

It is very difficult, if not impossible, for an American to realize the present social structure of European countries, or the nature of their politics. Happily for us we have nothing corresponding to them here. Every country in Europe is, as yet, loaded down—the most of them to the breaking strain—with statutes of law, and social, political, and ecclesiastical customs, the most of which had their origin in the brutalities, the dense ignorance, the half barbarisms, and the social and religious bigotries of the Middle Ages, and which have made their politics to be, what they yet are, simply a game of chicanery and *finesse*, with the intent to make the masses at the bottom content to be ridden by a king with a noble at his side, and a priest behind him. So that there is now there existing, and in many cases being carefully cultivated, the old-time race antipathies and heredities, the inherited repellent institutions, the political and religious hates, that, for ages, have deluged the earth with blood, and overridden the common brotherhood of man.

Take these few illustrations out of a vast multitude that might be given of the political affairs of but three of the most enlightened and advanced powers of Europe, viz. : England, France, and Germany.

In the former country down to 1830 the statesmen of England

ersisted in denying to one that happened be born a Jew, almost l the common rights of citizenship. He could hold no office, vil, military, or corporate. He could not practice law, nor ach a school, nor even be the janitor of a school building. le could not vote, however learned, or noble, or wealthy he ight be, nor could he sit in Parliament if elected by his fellow-ien. In 1848, the head of the house of Rothschilds in England, he Baron Lionel, was, together with a fellow Jew, David alomons, forcibly ejected from the House of Commons to hich they had been for the second time elected, but forbidden o serve! It was not until 1858 that this political disability as removed. Even twenty-five years ago all such peaceable rganizations as labor unions were outlawed by statute in ngland.

Across the Channel, less than a half century ago, out of the hirty-five millions of people in France, less than seventy thou-and were permitted to vote or have any voice in their govern-ient, while to take an article, however trivial, from consecrated round, was a felony punishable by death, and to profane in ny way the sacramental wafer and wine of the church was a rime by statute equal to parricide.

It is not wonderful that the statesmen of Germany near this ime forbade its young men in the universities to form college ocieties, and regularly sent committees to attend the lectures f the professors in the universities, and take notes of what they aid. For was it not the duty of the people to be ruled, and was ot the king the divinely appointed ruler of the people?

So the effort of almost every statesman in Europe for the ast three hundred years has been to preserve the present ondition of things. In this they have succeeded, until such mes as the heaving of the oppressed, restless, voiceless masses eneath compelled attention to their wrongs, when, to avoid ose cataclysms called revolutions, they have reluctantly con-eded to humanity some of its rights. It is these ancient heir-

looms of precedents, of kingcraft and priestcraft, that have made improvement so painful and bloody in Europe, and have made progress in some of its most important states to be as yet impossible, so that he who visits them virtually visits the Mediæval Ages.

It is scarce twenty-five years since the system of hereditary priesthood in Russia was abolished, while all the world has shuddered at the inhuman persecution of the Jews carried on in that country since 1882. The Russian imperial "Act of Grace," issued by its statesmen in 1883, provided that such persons as highwaymen, murderers, embezzlers of the public funds, common thieves, and other like criminals, may receive, under the decree, an immediate and unconditional pardon on application to the Minister of the Interior, but *political prisoners* could be pardoned and return to their homes, only provided *their homes were not in large cities*, while such as had been banished to Siberia or elsewhere for the period of fifteen years might be pardoned and return to their homes, provided, in case of inquiry, it should be found that they were *not guilty of the offense charged against them!* Verily, a most wonderful "Act of Grace"!

But it is impossible for these present conditions in Europe to abide. The cosmopolite and the modern reporter are abroad and European statesmen will, erelong, realize, as a few like Cobden and John Bright, and Gladstone in his later years, have perceived, to wit: that the ancients could quitclaim no other rights but their own, and that they had no authority to preempt for ages to come the welfare, advancement, and happiness of mankind in order to perpetuate their lineage or to continue their superstitions. The day for the humanities is coming and it is time that the old pontifico-royal contracts were repudiated in Europe. The political, social, and commercial affairs of its peoples are so intermingled and interdependent as to make it utterly impossible to go back to the older conditions of

solation, mutual distrusts, and hates, without a total destruction of the body politic. The rapid communication of modern times, the world-extensive commerce of all civilized people, the immense advance in scientific knowledge, whereby the destructive enginery of war is made so dreadful, make it an imperative duty on those who guide the affairs of nations that they suffer the hate of the human heart to die out, by assiduously cultivating peace and its virtues, knowledge and its triumphs, and the benign fruits of brotherly kindness. The past is dead. Let it remain interned; for the marrow in its bones has long since turned to dust.

The American Revolution shattered the political idols of six thousand years, and when its immortal Declaration of Independence went winging through the earth, the wise old owls of Europe. peering from out their places in the dead trees of the past, saw that the long night of human oppression was now far spent, and the dawning of a new day was at hand. And so when the people of France, maddened by the robberies and oppressions of generations of ecclesiastico-political aristocrats, caught up the refrain of that great document, attuning it to their Marseillaise of Freedom, all the royal rookeries of Europe went wild with affright, and, hurrying forth, their occupants hedged France about with their cordon of flaming armies in the vain hope of destroying truth by killing the truth-tellers, and then for a quarter of a century both the Old World and the New were shaken by one of the most terrific tempests of human wrath that the earth has ever known. At last, as the clouds began slowly to lift from off the blood-drenched world, men here and there discerned that the mind was now free, and a new factor was in the earth, of which statesmen must hereafter take account.

In the very height of this storm, by the treaty of Tilsit, July, 1807, one half of the territory of King Frederick William III. of Prussia was taken away from him, and the humbled monarch

and his wife went visiting Alexander of Russia, and did not return for two years. In the mean time the statesmen Stein and Hardenberg undertook great reforms for men, which the king, on his return, suspended, promising to carry them out after his subjects should help him overthrow the Bonapartes. But when Blucher had done this at Waterloo, Frederick William, after the manner of kings, straightway forgot his promise, and Germany went begging for reform, and it is yet begging.

Three hundred or more petty states, each with its petty king, composed the old German Empire, but after the culmination of the storm at Waterloo but thirty-nine of them remained and several of these soon faded away. The mighty plowshare of Napoleon had uprooted a host of noble scions and greatly changed the face of the royal farms of Europe. After the storm had swept past, the chief three remaining kings of the European earth, to wit, Alexander I. of Russia, Francis II. of Austria, and Frederick William III. of Prussia, gathered themselves together at Vienna on September 26, 1815, where was formed an agreement duly signed by the several kings, which document is known in history as the Holy Alliance. Alexander is said to have drawn it with his own hand at the instance and under the immediate inspiration of that celebrated mystic prophetess, the Russian baroness, the Madame Krüdener of Paris and Riga, a woman of many accomplishments and of great wealth, who since she was thirteen years of age had traveled in almost every city of Europe as an adventuress in her palmy days, then as a mystic when her bloom had fled, and whom Alexander had met at Heilbronn a month before Waterloo and become infatuated both with her and her doctrines, and she henceforth moved him as she moved other kings and princes, as her puppet, or playmate, or her dearest friend.

The contents of this kingly document were not known in Europe until February 2 of the following year, when the *Frankfurt Journal* published it in full. It was thus seen that not

nly had they sought to restore the map of Central Europe to its ancient outlines, thus virtually commanding the small brood of petty kinglets to set about tinkering each for himself his antiquated overturned throne and to climb thereon, but they promised to confirm and perpetuate the existing dynasties of Europe according to the doctrines and practices of Christianity, to be interpreted only and enforced by the creeds and methods of the several parties to the contract. The one meaning of the whole scheme was to crush out that political liberty which the American and French Revolutions had set loose in the earth, and to return the people to the good old fatherly style of mediæval government for the benefit of the king, the noble, and the priest. And to accomplish this, they now made their appeal in the name of religion—that last appeal of tyranny in all ages. And so these monarchs, in the name of the Holy Christ, took upon themselves the government of the European world under the guidance of the Krüdener.

The compact remained in existence, active and nominal, until the second French Revolution of 1830 swept away this the most pernicious scheme of modern times, into the rubbish heaps of the past. To it nearly all the European powers gave assent. But to the everlasting credit of George Canning, then prime minister of England, be it told, that he labored with all his might and main, not only to keep England out of it—in which he succeeded—but to counteract the foul influence of that last great combine for universal despotism. Among the few names whom the limited space at command allows now to be mentioned, Americans will do well to remember that Titan of destruction as well as of reform, the Mirabeau, whose principles and arguments Sir Samuel Romilly so ably used in the British Parliament when he sought to cast out from English law the horrid Pagan and Middle Ages savagery embodied in the British statutes. Although accounted the enemy of society,—o foul is the grip of prejudice,—although he was destined to see

his bills cast out of the House of Lords year after year, he nevertheless persevered in spite of the scorn of the statesmen of his time until at last his work was taken up by that great jurist and scholar, Sir James Mackintosh, and later by the renowned statesman, Sir Robert Peel, who, in his great speech before Parliament, March 9, 1826, defended his five Acts and having carried them set in motion a reform yet far from complete, by which there now began to be lifted from men by law the barbaric abuses that had been put upon humanity by the ancient Paganisms.

Much yet remains to be done both in England and on the Continent to disenthrall mankind. It is doubtful if it is accomplished by peaceful means, for all the present statesmen of Europe seem bent on preserving yet longer that fiction of the Italian diplomacy of the sixteenth century, viz.: "The Balance of Power in Europe." And because of this they diligently repress all efforts of the people to break down or discard the political partitions called national boundaries, and even refuse as yet to have buried or burned that stinking corpse of the nineteenth century, the "unspeakable Turk," nor will they have rectified many a crying abuse elsewhere lest it set in motion that patient animal, the under man, and so the artificial structure of political Europe fall to the ground and their masters be compelled, forsooth, to earn their daily bread.

Dr. Bellows once spoke of such triumph as that of "a headless democracy drifting to victory." The phrase is well worth remembering. But we must remember, at the same time, that the drift is on that steady current which we call the Providence of God. The drift is indeed evidence that God wills that truth shall be stronger than falsehood, right stronger than wrong, and, in a word, that good shall overcome evil.

Here is the reason why in the history of the United States there are but a few men especially classed among statesmen in such books as this. This is not because America has produced

ut few statesmen, but because she has produced so many. among the few who stand out as distinguished among the est I shall speak of John Winthrop of Massachusetts, of Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, of Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and of John Adams and Samuel Adams of Massachusetts.

John Winthrop was born in Groton, in England. It is in the county of Suffolk, and is a place so small that at the present moment it has not a post office of its own. He was of a good county family, a man of earnest religious convictions and closely allied with the Puritan movement, not simply from his own habits and principles, but from those of his near relatives and friends. "The Massachusetts Company" was formed in 1628, under a charter from the king for trade with Massachusetts Bay and for the encouragement of a settlement there.

The men who joined in it were men who had money that they could put into it. They were merchants of London and of Dorchester, a fishing town in the west of England, joined with religious persons in the country, such as Winthrop's friends, Johnson, Dudley, Saltonstall, and others, whose purpose was that the colony should be mainly made up from persons of their own religious convictions.

Undoubtedly when the charter was given, it was supposed on all hands that the management of the business should be in London. It was precisely, as, to-day, the management of a company for cutting timber in the Adirondacks might be in the hands of a board of directors in the city of New York. But, before the end of 1629, the founders of the company were more and more dissatisfied with the condition of things in England, and those persons came to the front in the colony matters who had joined the company specially because they wanted to form a state. It was then agreed in its councils that those whom we should call the president and directors should themselves remove to America. That is to say, the directors' meetings

should be held in America, and the directions given to settlers should be given upon the spot.

To use a phrase of forty years ago, this was the recognition of "squatter sovereignty." But it was a squatter sovereignty with the consent of those who were or were supposed to be the rightful holders of the territory.

John Winthrop agreed to be governor of this remarkable state. With about one thousand persons, men, women, and children, he came to Massachusetts Bay, where he landed on the longest day of the year 1630. Of his thousand companions, about one hundred returned, discouraged, with the fleet. More then one hundred died before the next April. He found himself then the governor of a state of which the population was about four hundred and fifty men, a hundred and fifty women, and one to two hundred children. When they landed he found himself at the head of twelve "assistants"—or, as we should say, "directors." He and they were to make all the laws of this colony. Several of these asssistants died in the course of the first winter.

The persons who had power to fill their places were those who were members of the corporation, and had come out with them. These persons were what we should call stockholders. They agreed at their first meeting to increase their numbers, by choosing into their company, which was a close corporation, one hundred and eight more "freemen" from among the most prominent of the settlers. At successive quarterly meetings of these "freemen" or "stockholders," more freemen were chosen, and this process of enlarging the number of persons who may vote at such meetings has gone on until now what is called the universal suffrage of men is the law of the state of Massachusetts, which these people founded.

John Winthrop was the principal director of the varied arrangements by which the creaking and limited apparatus of a trading company was made to answer the purposes of an

independent commonwealth. One hundred and twenty-three years after he died, this commonwealth defied the strongest king in Europe and began a war with him in which he was absolutely and disgracefully defeated. This commonwealth alone maintained in that war a navy of forty ships. In a privateering fleet, she kept afloat nearly one hundred thousand seamen. To have founded such a commonwealth, from such unsatisfactory material when he began, gives John Winthrop his claim to be named first among the statesmen of America.

Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston in 1706, fifty-four years after Winthrop died. The trading company of Massachusetts Bay had already become a commonwealth, though it was not called so. It was called the "Province of Massachusetts Bay." Really, to all intents and purposes, it was an independent state. True it received a governor who was appointed, virtually for life, by the king of England. But it paid this governor only what it chose and he had to do very much what the province wished. Nominally, the laws were sent to London for approval. But they were put into operation until they were approved, and, if the king's council disapproved, all that the province had to do, was to pass the law again and to keep on sending it to London for approval until the council was tired. Virtually the province was independent of England.

Into such a community Benjamin Franklin was born; one of the most remarkable men, for the range and balance of mental power, whom the world has ever known. He was the eighth son of a poor tallow-chandler. Before he was eleven years old he had a little school education, involving, among other things, a slight knowledge of the Latin language. But when he was ten years old he was set to work making candles, and when twelve years old he was apprenticed to his brother, a printer. In the printing office he gained that admirable ability to use the English language which places him in the front rank of English writers.

Discontented with the strictness of his brother's sway (him, he ran away from home when he was nineteen, and es lished himself as a printer in the newly founded city of Pl delphia. There was then no fugitive slave law, compel one province of America to return to another a "person l to service or labor" who had escaped. Franklin was his (master from this time until he died, sixty-three years a wards. He used his time so well that he became, for the ti a rich man, and a leader in the state. The hereditary ari racy of Philadelphia were not quite sure whether he wer to associate with them. But after he established his reputa in the world as a student in natural science, more pe thought of him and were interested in him than cared fo the rest of Philadelphia put together.

In Pennsylvania Franklin found two parties,—the part the people, and the aristocratic party, which sustained as as it could the wishes of the Penn family, who had inhe such rights as Charles II. could give to William Penn. It as if Winthrop and his councilors had created a little co of "distinguished" people to carry on the colony of Ma chusetts,—and the people of Massachusetts had had to cla on the outside for everything they needed.

Under any feudal system,—or aristocratic system,—e simplest arrangement of life is accounted a privilege, confe by some superior. Under the conditions of a democracy, arrangements are men's own determinations of what r hood requires.

Franklin, from the first, took the ground that the pe who were living on the land knew best what was needed. a hundred discussions, on subjects which in themselves s trifling, these fundamental questions were involved. They at the bottom of all questions of government. Does a tain select class of men know best how to make the laws cause they have been educated, or because they are rich

ecause they have leisure? Or will the people, for whom the aws are made, understand best what are their own necessiies? Between the advocates of the aristocratic theory, which upposes that laws must be made outside and independent of he people governed, and the democratic theory, which supposes hat the people governed are the best judges of what is fit for hem, Franklin never hesitated.

At the same time he was rising into distinction through the ivilized world by his philosophical inquiries and discoveries.

He became a very important leader in Pennsylvania. He was twice sent by the colony to England, to represent its needs and position to the king and government there. He was appointed by Massachusetts Bay in 1765 to a similar duty. Before the British ministry he had to maintain the same principle to which his life had been committed—the principle of home rule. He left England for home in May, 1775, and sat in the Continental Congress in that year and the next. He was one of the committee appointed to draw the Declaration of Independence. His wide acquaintance in Europe placed him at the head of the committee on foreign affairs, and led to his election as one of our ministers to France, where he lived nine years. He negotiated our treaties with France and England. Returning to America in 1786 he was able to sit as a member of the National Constitutional Convention, and for years he was president of Pennsylvania under its new constitution. All his contributions to the service of government, whether in the greatest discussions or in the most playful stories or other essays, are well worth the attention of thoughtful readers.

Samuel Adams has been called the author of the Independence of the United States, and fairly called so. For this reason, if for no other, he is to be included in any list of distinguished American statesmen.

When he left college, in 1743, the subject of his address on Commencement Day was, "Whether it be lawful to resist the

chief magistrate, if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved." So soon as the contests between the colonies and Great Britain began, he took the lead of the popular party in Boston. He was recognized as their best adviser. He organized the correspondence with the other colonies. And his plans always looked forward to a real independence of British control. At the first, he was probably indifferent as to details which might leave a nominal sovereignty over the colonies with the king, but he meant that in fact the colonies should be independent.

The royal governors and the king recognized his leadership, and when, in an attempt at reconciliation, the king offered, in advance, to pardon almost all rebels, John Hancock and Samuel Adams were specially exempted, by name, in the proclamation.

When, in 1770, a collision of the English troops with the people took place in Boston, the affray, which in the history of that town is called the "Boston Massacre," Samuel Adams was chairman of the committee of the town which waited on Hutchinson, the royal governor, to demand that the troops should be withdrawn. Adams forced Governor Hutchinson to withdraw the two regiments to Fort William in the harbor, and from that time George III. always called the regiments the "Sam Adams regiments."

He was, of course, sent to Philadelphia to the Continental Congress which appointed George Washington commander of the army, and assumed the army as a national army. To him is largely due the breadth of view and loyalty to the national cause which led to this important step.

He was, like Franklin and Jefferson and John Adams, on the committee which drafted the Declaration of Independence.

In the Continental Congress afterward, his services were not very important. He hated England with a holy hatred, but he was more than once mixed up in intrigues of the time which men now regret.

After the peace, he looked with dread on the improvements suggested in the Articles of Confederation. It was with great difficulty that he brought himself to assent to the determination of a younger generation, which insisted on the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

Thomas Jefferson is not to be counted as a great statesman for any agency in that remarkable work of constitution-making which distinguishes the years at the end of the last century. Fortunately for the nation, he did make the draft of the Declaration of Independence. As this is known to us, it is all almost in his own words. He was in France at the time when the Federal Constitution was adopted. He gave a somewhat languid assent to it when he received it. He was almost immediately called into the administration at Washington, and in 1801 he was chosen president by the Democratic party. He directed, or thought he directed, the administration of James Madison, which followed his own. In the administration of the presidency, Jefferson showed but little executive ability, and if his reputation were to rest upon the success or the failure of the United States, as government directed it in the sixteen years after his election, he would never be classed among distinguished statesmen. But as the governor of Virginia in the war, and in what he said and did afterward, Jefferson showed that absolute confidence in the people which is the foundation of all real democracy. While he was in no sort a practical leader in the direction of affairs, he was sure that the great body of men is able to manage its own affairs. He staked everything, in his political fortunes, on this great truth. Because he did so, he will always be gratefully remembered as one of the true founders of America.

John Adams, the second president of the United States, was born in Braintree, now Quincy, in Massachusetts, in the year 1735. He entered on the practice of the law in Boston in the year 1758, and in all the struggles which led to the American Revo-

lution he accepted with courage the popular side. From very early life, he gave the most careful studies to the systems of government of ancient and modern times. When the Continental Congress was formed, he was so prominent as a director of public opinion that he was sent there by the legislature, or General Court, of Massachusetts, which at the same time commissioned Samuel Adams and John Hancock as a part of its delegation. John Adams sat as a member of this congress until he was sent to France as minister in the year 1777.

Meanwhile, the different states were forming the constitutions by which they were to be governed after the flight of the royal governors. From the very beginning Adams was consulted in such work, and there probably was not a constitution of that time in any one of the thirteen states which had not the impress, more or less distinct, of the counsel which he gave. Very fortunately for Massachusetts, when her second convention met for preparing a constitution, Adams had just returned from France. Of this convention he was the leader, and this constitution, which has proved itself admirably adapted for its purpose, is almost entirely his work. This was recognized at the time. He was not in the convention which made the Federal Constitution, but he loyally accepted its results, which indeed show at one remove, the influence of his own studies and advice. The establishment of an elective chief magistrate and of two houses is precisely what Adams had urged upon every statesman or politician who had consulted him. In the subsequent administration of the government, he was to the last degree loyal to the letter of the Federal Constitution, and never wished to extend its provisions for the advantage of himself or his own party.

After independence was secured, the successful states had a new problem before them. They were states now, and not colonies. They were called the United States. But really, the union between them had been little more than their determina-

ion to beat a common enemy, the king of Great Britain. Now hat they had succeeded in this enterprise, though they even ad foreign ministers in European courts, they had no power o enforce any provisions of any treaties they had made. They vere dependent on the good nature of separate states for the noney which should pay their debts. It has been said, with ruth, that the confederacy of states formed under the "Articles of Confederation" could not command money enough to uy the quills from which the pens were made with which its ecretary wrote down its enactments.

Absolute necessity compelled some closer union. The first movements toward it were made in the interests of commerce. States near each other, like Delaware and Maryland, were obliged to confer as to the regulation of common affairs, such as, for those states, the navigation of Delaware Bay. From such movements grew the Constitutional Convention, already referred to when we spoke of the life of Franklin.

The men sent to this convention by the several states were sometimes younger men than those who had borne the brunt of the war. But among them were men who had been trained to statesmanship in its trials. Among those was Roger Sherman of Connecticut. He was recognized as a leader of the patriots of Connecticut when the war began. He had already served that state as a judge and as a member of the upper house in its legislature. In the Continental Congress he also, like Franklin, John Adams, and Jefferson, was of the committee of five which drew the Declaration of Independence.

His experience, his knowledge of the whole country, and a certain dispassionate judgment, such as lifts common sense into the range of genius, placed him among the very foremost of the makers of the Constitution. He represented a small state, but was not intolerant of the rights of large states nor ignorant of their powers. He made many suggestions which proved to have the highest value in the discussion of this great

convention, and was placed on many of the most important committees.

The Constitution itself, "the greatest work of men which was ever contrived in so short a time," cannot be ascribed to the wisdom, the forethought, or the genius of any one man. It is an illustration, well-nigh perfect, of the truth that a body of people who know what they want will be able to have it if they try. It is the work of the people of America. In that work however, it should always be said that the people had no more skillful, wise, and faithful counselor and leader than Roger Sherman.

WOMAN IN JOURNALISM.

HER VALUABLE SERVICE TO THE DAILY PRESS.

THE formation of the International Woman's Press Association, by a few newspaper women at the New Orleans Exposition, was among the prominent events that called ention to the fact that this new sphere of work for women d been successfully entered by them.

Miss Belle Grant Armstrong of Massachusetts says that if "actual life of this organization did not get much beyond paper upon which it is recorded, the spirit lived on." The retary of this association was Mrs. Marian A. McBride of ston, one of the first newspaper women in the East, and one the ablest. She has unusual executive ability, and was the piration in the foundation of the New England Woman's ess Association, in 1885. Among the first members were s. Sallie Joy White, of the *Boston Herald*; Mrs. Cora Stuart heeler, who has since gained eminence as a lecturer as well a writer; Miss Helen M. Winslow, now one of the associate itors of *The New Cycle*, and Miss Grace W. Soper.

There are Woman's Press Associations and Clubs in nearly ery state in the Union, and also a national organization. The ew England Woman's Press Association is a fair example. ccording to Miss Armstrong, it began with six members in 1885, creased to thirty during the first year, was incorporated in 890, and in 1893 had a membership of one hundred and seventy.

The same authority also says that the membership "includes ll grades of workers, from the young reporter whose first

assignment may be to write a stickful about a fair, to women who own and publish their papers. Perhaps one third of our members are on the staff of daily or weekly journals, giving all or nearly all their time to the work done by them for these journals. The other members are free lances, who write for different publications, and may or may not be regular contributors to some one or more papers or magazines."

In these days, there is scarcely a phase of city newspaper work, excepting the sporting and regular court department, that is not represented by women. The larger share of them, of course, are doing general reporting or special department work. Newspaper women can do some things better than men, and some things as well as men can do them, and in some respects, because of special deficiencies, they are less valuable than men. But the rule is growing in practice, to let women do anything they can do, and many managing editors have found that there are many things that all women can accomplish, and that some women can do pretty nearly everything.

The especial adaptability of woman for newspaper work in all its branches has been, during the years of 1894–95, many times exemplified by their successful conduct of one issue of a daily paper in many of our large cities. All of these have attained literary and financial success, and have opened the way to steady, remunerative employment to more than one woman.

The business manager of the woman's edition of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, Mrs. W. J. Sheppard, showed such remarkable business ability that she was offered and has accepted the position of advertising agent on one of the large dailies, with a fine salary, and is doing the work most satisfactorily. All the members of the editorial staff have been invited to write editorials for different papers, and probably realize as never before the mighty power of the press.

Those departments of the larger newspapers entitled the

ısehold, fashion, children's page, and puzzle column are ıerally conducted by women, while the musical and art ticisms and many book reviews are often written by them.

The work done by Miss Middy Morgan, first for the *New rk Tribune* and then for a number of the New York daily pers, occasioned much comment in the first days of the dertaking. During the days of comfort and plenty in her tive country, Ireland, she was the companion of her father, ıo was a great lover of horses and cattle and had large num- ns of them on his estate. Middy became familiar with the od and bad points of these animals, and so was in a measure edeeming the time," for when after serious reverses she ınd herself in New York, poor and proud, and apparently with way open in which she could earn her living, she went to Mr. eeley, hoping he might be able to assist her. In the conver- ion with him she learned the lack of a reporter at the cattle ırket. The hint was sufficient; she determined to undertake s work, and did it so successfully as to give her a name own throughout the country. Although very tall and of ge frame, and devoted to an unusual work for woman, Miss ɔrgan was not in any other respect masculine. She was ssessed of a fair complexion, blue eyes, fair hair, and a man- r full of vivacity and courage. She dressed for her work, d yet in no way was her dress conspicuous. At the time of r death, a few years ago, the press was united in its com- endation of her work as a live stock reporter, and in its bute to her womanliness and enterprise.

In the records of early journalism we find that woman had oportionately almost as much interest as in these later years. ıring the years of the war of the Revolution, several papers, me of them indicating such skill as to receive recognition ɔm the government and continuing in the business for years, ere edited and published by women. Such a woman was izabeth Timothy, of Charleston, South Carolina, whose work

in this direction was so able that she was appointed state printer, continuing in the position for seventeen years.

The readers of a magazine published forty years ago, called *Forester's Boys' and Girls' Magazine*, will readily recall the name of Fanny Forester, a contributor to that periodical, and a charming writer for the youth of that period. Her real name was Emily C. Chubbuck, and she afterward became more familiar as the wife of Adoniram Judson. Reference to her life as a missionary is made elsewhere in this work.

Sarah E. Hale for more than forty years was the editor of the *Godey's Lady's Book*, and it was under her management that its greatest popularity was achieved.

Alliterative names seem to have been the choice of many of the women contributors: Fanny Forester, already mentioned, Fanny Fern (Mrs. James Parton), who for many years contributed regularly to the *New York Ledger*, Grace Greenwood (Mrs. Sara J. Lippincott), and Jennie June (Mrs. Jennie C. Croly), now so prominent a writer of articles on every topic of interest to women. She is the editor of the *New Cycle*, the official organ of the Federation of Women's Clubs, with Mrs. Mary E. Boyce as first associate editor.

Mary Mapes Dodge of the *St. Nicholas*, Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, for years editor of the *Little Corporal*, Mrs. L. M. Alden, better known as "Pansy," Miss Mary Booth, editor of *Harper's Bazar*, Mrs. Frank Leslie, proprietor and manager of the Frank Leslie publishing house, Miss Frances E. Willard, editor-in-chief of the *Union Signal*, and Mrs. Helen Kendrick Johnson, editor of the *American Woman's Magazine*, are representative women who have succeeded in journalism.

Lulu Green Richards was the editor of the *Woman's Exponent*, a semi-monthly paper, and one of the first woman's papers established west of the Mississippi. Mrs. Emmeline B. Wells is its present editor. The first issue was in June, 1872, at Salt Lake City. About the same time appeared the *New Northwest*.

tland, Oregon, and the *Golden Dawn* in San Francisco. three were the pioneer women's papers of the West, and h them the women of the far west expressed their views subjects. Among the contributors we find the names of Hill Woodmansee, Ellen B. Ferguson, Annie Wells Can- Martha A. Y. Greenhalgh, Ruth M. Fox, and Mary A.

s. Eliza J. Nicholson was the pioneer woman journalist of uth. This lady was born in Mississippi in 1849. Her . John Porterant, was a French Huguenot, and her mother ed to an aristocratic South Carolina family. All the days th and girlhood were spent in the company of books, and of them. With these for companions, and nature for a r, she developed rapidly. While still young she sent positions" to the New York and New Orleans papers. were readily accepted. In 1874, the editor of the *New s Picayune* invited her to become its literary editor. voman in such a position was an unheard-of thing in the and rare in any climate. The movement was strongly d by her family, but she decided to make the venture. cepted the position and became very successful in her Her marriage to the proprietor of the paper, Colonel Holbrook, was followed soon after by her husband's A heavy debt rested upon the establishment, but Mrs. ook, nothing daunted, gathered a most excellent staff of s about her, and worked hard at routine office work her- She has ever since retained the proprietorship—suggest- s political and state affairs, and superintending the entire gement. In 1878 she married Mr. George Nicholson, the ss manager of the *Picayune*. The debt has been paid, 1887 the golden anniversary of the paper was celebrated ew office. Mrs. Nicholson pays a fine tribute to her hus- worth and says, "To Mr. Nicholson I owe what success achieved in journalism."

Another Southern woman who has been a success in this field is Mrs. Marie Robinson Wright. She is a Georgian by birth, of a wealthy family, and has received a fine education. She was married to Mr. Hinton P. Wright, in 1870, when only sixteen years of age. The marriage displeasing the parents, they disinherited her. Her husband's death occurred in a few years and Mrs. Wright was left with two small children, the support of which devolved upon her own exertions. Resolving to enter the domain of journalism, she established and conducted for two years, a little sheet called the *Sunny South*. The opportunity presenting, she then became a member of the staff of the *New York World*.

Her appointment to the Paris Exposition by Governor Gordon of Georgia and her position as vice-president for Georgia of the National Woman's Press Association have conspired to give her fame in the newspaper world.

Miss Elizabeth Cochrane, better known to the world as "Nellie Bly," was born in the state of Pennsylvania in 1867. Her early education was acquired under the direction of her father. After his death, she attended a boarding school for two years, until ill health prevented further study of books and rendered outdoor and physical exercise a necessity. Her natural bent for reading tales of travels and adventure was now fully indulged. When she began writing short stories she sent one to the *Pittsburg Sunday Dispatch*, which resulted in her being engaged as a regular contributor to its columns.

Miss Cochrane visited the shops and factories of the city of Pittsburg, and wrote articles on the condition of the working women employed. She made a tour of Mexico in the interest of the *Dispatch*; her letters for its pages proving of universal interest were widely copied and commented upon. Soon after she become engaged on the reportorial staff of the *New York World*, which position she occupied when she gained her greatest notoriety, by her trip around the world unattended by man.

:eat was performed in 72 days, 6 hours, 11 minutes, and 14 ds, less remarkable in point of time than in its being ac- lished by a woman unprotected.

:s. Frances E. Owens is another publisher whose work was in the West. She was born in New York state; after vari- xperiences all tending to develop a strong, womanly char- . at fifteen years of age she entered the Chicago normal ɔl and graduated in 1860. Four years' successful experi- as a teacher in the Chicago public schools was interrupted ·r marriage, after which she still continued in her work ıcher.

'hen Mr. Owens's health became permanently impaired in :quence of a sunstroke during the summer of 1881, the bur- ɔf caring for a family of five children fell upon the wife, was cheerfully and ably borne.

ıe great Chicago fire destroyed home and business and determined to try a new country, and went to Dakota and :rmillion for four years published the *Clay County Regis-* ı paper of their own establishment. During these years ɔusiness and farming interests of the country suffered :ly because of a scourge of grasshoppers. Still the *Register* published. The time came, however, when Mrs. Owens "You go back to Chicago and find work as a printer, and l run the paper." He went, found employment, and in a nonths was able to send for his family. Meanwhile, she ed on the business, and Emily A. Kellogg, who writes a :h of her work, says, "If any change was evident the nan's paper' was credited with more vim and energy than ı it was a joint enterprise." Mrs. Owens finally found a ıaser for the *Register*, and then rejoined her husband in ıgo. Her next venture was the publishing of a cook book, uccess of which was far beyond her utmost expectations; d readily and in a few years its sale reached one hundred ɜand.

Mrs. Owens is now editor and publisher of the *Journal of Industrial Education*, a magazine that represents workers in various lines, as the manual training school, the kindergarten, the kitchen garden, and the Columbian Association of Housekeepers.

She is a member of the Illinois Woman's Press Association, and represented that body in San Francisco, at a meeting of the International League of Press Clubs.

Miss Katherine Markham Power is the successful editor and owner of *Kate Power's Review*, a paper of high literary standard and which has the fourth place in circulation among the weeklies of the state of Mississippi. Her place of apprenticeship was in her father's office, while he was the editor of the *Clarion*, the official Democratic organ of the state. Here, at various times, she successfully filled every position from proof reader up to editor. Her father, who has recently been nominated for secretary of state in Mississippi, says he owes his success to his daughter. In the midst of the canvass he was taken seriously ill. Miss Power proved equal to the occasion, took up the work, and conducted the campaign from that time on, visited delegates, made appeals by voice and letter, and had her efforts crowned with success. It is said that many a politician envies the woman her ability.

Miss Ellen Dortch is the young editor of the *Chronicle*, a weekly paper published at Milledgeville, Georgia. She has also gained distinction because of her very earnest efforts to have the University of the South, at Athens, Georgia, opened to women, and also to further the growth and possibilities for good of the Industrial School for Georgia Girls. She is secretary of the Woman's Press Club of Georgia, and vice-president of the Weekly Press Association of that state.

Of women in journalism in England, Lady Henry Somerset says, "It is only within the last five years, that English girls have gone into journalism," and in this movement she sees a

hopeful sign of popular education and advancement. "All the leading papers have one woman on the staff and very often several women in different departments. Of course many of them are limited to the woman's column, but there is a general feeling that women can be occupied in other directions and do good work. In the line of interviewing, I think women have a great future. A bright young woman on my own paper is becoming quite celebrated already in this very line of work. Women have more tact than men, and, again, it is much more difficult to refuse to see a woman and answer her questions, and so women often succeed when men fail."

The Jewish women of the United States are not without their own periodical even though of recent establishment. Mrs. Rosa Sonneschein is the distinguished editor of the *American Jewess*, a magazine published in Chicago, which is an outgrowth of the work of the Jewish women at the World's Fair, when almost for the first time they appeared before the public. This is the first publication devoted to Jewish women which has appeared in this country, and it is the object of Mrs. Sonneschein through its pages to assist her sisters in all fields of feminine activity. The magazine is well edited and has several departments of universal interest to women.

Germany, too, has a new periodical devoted to woman's interests. It is called *Die Frau*, and is a monthly publication. Its appearance is an indication of the reaction that has set in, in favor of advancing the condition of women in Germany, morally and intellectually. Such a magazine would have found no support a decade ago. Its mission, it says, is to appeal to women as independent, individual, and responsible members of humanity, and to militate against stagnation and all *laisser-aller*. Its editor is the gifted Helene Lange, who is greatly interested in the higher education of the women of Germany. She is president of the General Federation of All the Societies of Women Teachers in Germany.

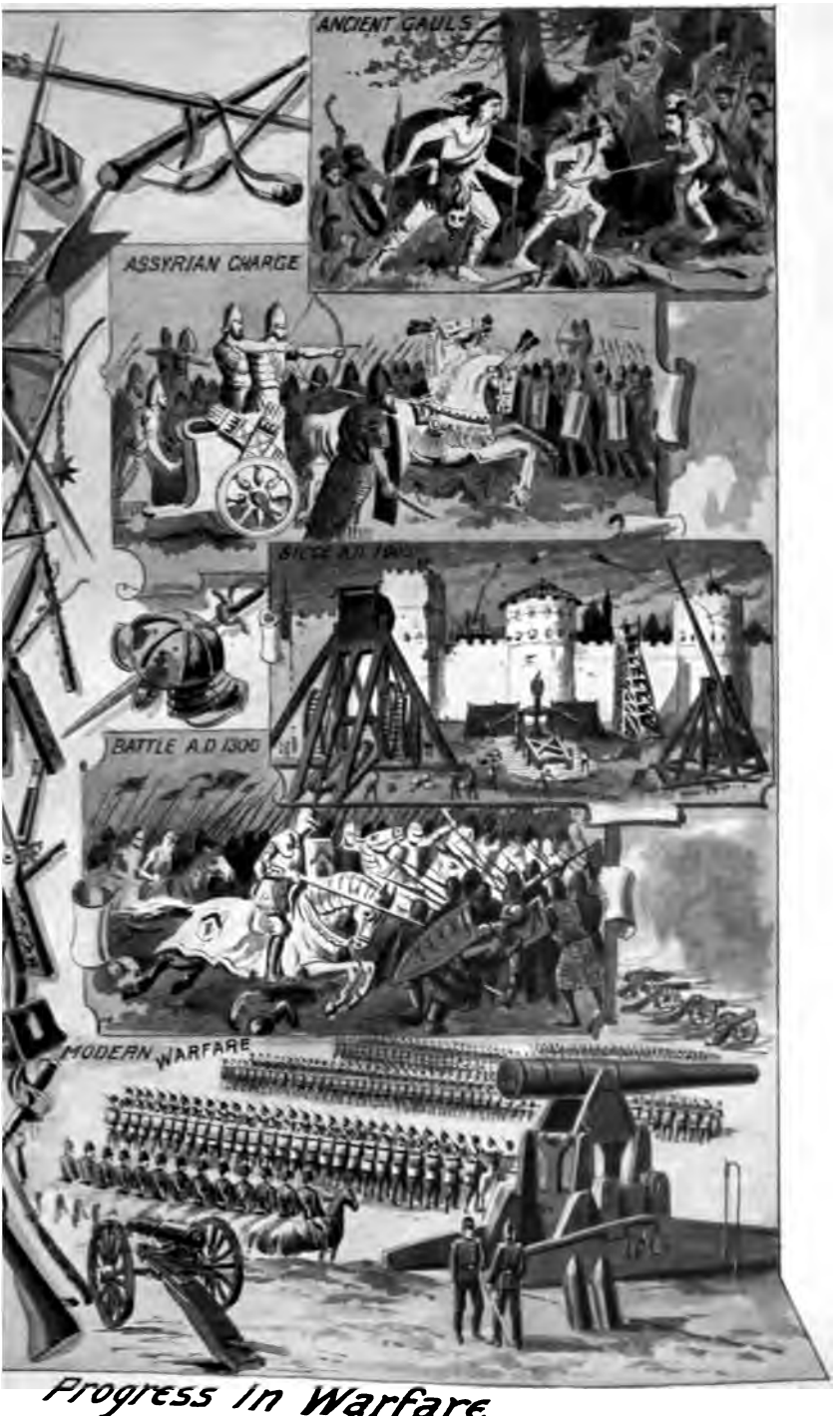
BATTLES OF THE WORLD.

HOW THE SOLDIER HAS MADE AND UNMADE NATIONS.

IN ancient times, when might made right, the soldier made and unmade the nation. By him monarchs were set up or pulled down, and his was the arm that hastened or retarded the great onward march of civilization. In later times, when the teachings of Christianity began to bring men nearer to the rule of right, the soldier was still prominent, and to-day, with all our boasted civilization and the mighty progress we have made in almost every direction, we still need the soldier.

As law is inoperative without physical force to back it, so the state is powerless without its soldiery to defend its rights and enforce its claims.

It was the soldier that cemented together the mighty Roman empire and thus hastened the spread of Christianity. It was the soldier that carried the Greek language to all parts of the then known world, and thus gave a common language to the nations. It was the soldier that stayed, at Waterloo, the mighty force that threatened to overrun and devastate all Europe. It was the soldier that gave the United States its civil liberty, and it was the soldier that freed us from slavery, that last relic of barbarism. We purpose to sketch some of the soldiers whose courage and martial skill have been the means of making the world better. It is true that some of the greatest soldiers have been inspired by an evil ambition, but even then they have accomplished for mankind infinitely more than they intended. By changing the



Progress in Warfare

: empires, they have often attained a greatness of fame
ɔes not properly belong to their personal character.
ɔf the most prominent examples of infinite good coming
ıe reckless audacity of a young soldier is found in
ler the Great. Unwise in his disregard of personal
and in his general conduct, he deserves the title of
" not only by the magnitude of his enterprises, but by
timate effect on Asiatic and European civilization.
born at Pella 356 B.C., and died in 323 B.C. His father,
I. of Macedonia, was a man of fearless courage and the
ıt judgment; his mother was a woman of savage energy
rce superstition. Alexander inherited the qualities of
rents and the result was a combination of a boundless
n with the most sober practical wisdom. His last tutor
ɜ Greek philosopher Aristotle, the best of the great
s of morality and self-restraint; but his life was marked
ɔlation of almost all the great precepts taught him by
ster. He loved dangers for the personal glory that
d them; but he loved murder for its own sake and in
the damage it did to his fame. He murdered without
ıuate reason his friends Philotus, Parmion, and Clitus.
ela he won the dominion of Asia. In less than thirty-
·ears he ended his life, having reigned thirteen. His
ıpire extended from the Ægean Sea on the east to the
River on the west; and from the African desert on the
o the River Jaxartes on the north. Never did so brief a
cause so much human suffering, and yet the ultimate
were very beneficial. He united two continents and
ıced Grecian art and science into the barbarous parts of
ıd Africa. The Greek language became the almost uni-
speech, while it was made more copious and flexible by
ental peoples who adopted it. For the first time in the
of Greece the talk of the common people became the
ge of government and of the most cultivated classes.

These changes made way for the rapid and general diffu of Christianity. In 285 B.C. the Hebrew scriptures were tr lated into Alexandrine Greek. This version of the Old Te ment, the "Septuagint," enabled the Jewish proselytes scatt through the East to become familiar with all their sa writings and to teach them to all such Alexandrine Greek frequented their synagogues, or had any dealings with th The Septuagint was commonly received by the Jews thro out the Grecian and Roman Empire. It was their sacred publicly read in all their synagogues, and it was quoted by Great Teacher in his first sermon at Nazareth, and use his disciples.

When, therefore, the wild young Alexander made to the east on his "Bucephalus," the "Bullhead," he was follo by a train of providential events that resulted in incalcu good to mankind.

Constantine, the first Christian emperor of Rome, was in 274 A.D. Before his conversion he served as a soldier u Diocletian and Galerius. In this capacity he was distingui for his bravery and martial skill, rising from rank to until, by his victory over the forces of the Emperor Maxe at the Milvian bridge, near Rome, October 28, 312 A.D., h came ruler of the western part of the Roman state. B this victory he asserted that he saw, in the noonday sky, a v of a luminous cross on which was inscribed these words: this you shall conquer." It may have been an illusion o excited imagination. Be this as it may, it led him to adop Christian religion, and to substitute the cross or labaru place of the Roman eagle as the army ensign. On July 3. he defeated Licinius, the ruler of the western section of empire, and thus became sole ruler of the Roman world. once he stopped the persecution of Christians. Pagan wor was still permitted, but all its immoralities were suppres In his capital, Constantinople, however, only Christian wors

as tolerated. He never claimed superior authority in the urch, but professed to have merely a friendly supervision er it. The fact of his being the first Christian prince, joined his weight of character, very naturally led to his being called preside at councils and to assist in adjusting the differences ecclesiastical parties. But he never assumed to be dictator the church. Although a soldier he did not forget that the ew religion was to be advanced chiefly by moral suasion, ence his behavior at church was always reverential. When he Nicene Council assembled in the hall of his palace he did ot presume to sit until he had received permission by a nod rom the presiding officer.

It has been charged that he first united church and state, nd began all those abuses that naturally follow a church stablished by secular authority. But this is not true. The buses had come in before his time and he not only did not increase them, but he checked and even abolished some of them. Possibly he may be mildly criticised for permitting the officials of the church to gain such a hold upon him that he too readily yielded to them and permitted practices that his good sense taught him were not for the best.

To Constantine and his mother, who were natives of Britain, the early British churches were much indebted for protection and growth. They had been brought up, not in the growing errors and superstitions of Latin Rome, but in the purer faith and worship of the Eastern church. Their influence may be traced in the adhesion of the early British churches to Greek usages and observances. The British priests were married. Curiously enough the question of church celibacy was settled during Constantine's reign. At the Council of Nice, three hundred and eighteen bishops decided that those priests who were single should not marry. Parnutius, with wonderful independence, stood alone in defense of clerical marriage, and carried the day.

By the removal of the capital of the Roman empire t stantinople, Constantine reduced the bishops of Rom level with the bishops of Constantinople. It was not un Lombards broke the power of the exarch of Ravenna that bishops began to act independently of the Greek emperor, subjects they still remained ; and it was not until Charle was crowned emperor of the Roman empire in eight hu that Leo III. claimed that the religious leadership had transferred from the East to the West. Pepin first ga pope temporal power by giving him the property of th quered king of Lombardy, and Charlemagne, the son of Pe the final overthrow of the Lombard power, confirmed his f grant to the pope. An insurrection at Rome drove Leo France, whereupon Charlemagne went to the Eternal established order there and restored the pope to his t In return for these services Charles the Great was crow the pope in the church of St. Peter.

Charles the Great, who thus became emperor of the ern Empire, was born in 742, and succeeded his father in 7 for forty-six years administered the affairs of the kin He found France a poor, weak, despised nation, and he n powerful and respected. His greatest military exploit w conquest and conversion of the Saxons. Their territo braced modern Denmark, Hanover, and all that part o many which lies east of the river Saale and north of Bo Led by brave chiefs, the Saxons had long been at war w Franks, who were only separated from them by the wate river. In 772, Charles commenced his campaigns agains tribes. During the previous winter the Saxons had destr successful mission which had been planted among th Deventer, where a band of converts had built a church pagan Saxons descended upon the peaceful settlement, l its church, slaughtered the converts, and allowed only th sionary to escape. The return of this devoted mission

all the story of the destruction of the mission fired the hearts of the Franks to avenge the death of their fellow Christians. Charles, sharing the general indignation, led his troops against the hereditary enemy, routed them in their fortress Eresburg, destroyed their idol and temple, and carried back to France a large amount of captured gold and silver.

Charles led seventeen campaigns against these tribes. He made treaty after treaty with them, but as soon as he left the country the treaties were broken. For more than thirty years the struggle continued. Again and again he conquered them, but they would revolt as soon as his armies left the country. His custom was to conquer a tribe and then to compel all to be baptized. Alcuin, an Englishman and trusted friend of the king, tried to dissuade him from this course so common among Christian sovereigns of that age. "Men," said Alcuin, "are to be attracted to the faith, not forced into it. The washing of the Saxon in baptism will profit nothing unless it be preceded by his acknowledgment of the truth."

His fights with the Saxons, though more numerous than with any other hostile neighbor, were only parts of his warlike operations. His campaign against the Saracens in Spain, his defense of Naples against the Arabs, his storming of the fortresses of the Huns and Avars, and his many other military exploits served to make him famous as a soldier rather than as a civil ruler. It is but just to him to say that nearly all his wars were defensive. But although he was a great warrior, yet he was likewise a great ruler. The government was well administered and prosperous, and attained a prominence under him that his immediate successors could not maintain.

The real life of Charlemagne has been obscured by much of romance and legend. For example, in the battle of Roncesvalles, Charles took no part. For this battle he has been blamed for centuries, but the facts are these: While his army was returning from Spain it passed through the valley of

Roncesvalles. The Gascons of the Pyrenees made an ambuscade in the rocky and densely wooded sides of the valley. The main body, led by Charles, passed through the gorge in safety, but while the rear guard in charge of the baggage were slowly marching through the dark and narrow defile, these mountaineers came down upon them and killed nearly every one and plundered their baggage. They then fled to the mountains, where pursuit was impossible. Thus the rear of his army was annihilated before the king in the van knew anything about it. He afterward erected a monument to the memory of the slain.

The sword of Charlemagne, according to the marvelous chronicle of Turpin, was so heavy, keen, and strong, that when wielded by the king it would cleave asunder, at one blow, an armed soldier on horseback, from head to waist, and at the same time cut the horse in two.

Charles is regarded not only as a defender of the Roman Catholic faith, but as a promoter of civilization. One of his familiar friends was Alcuin, a distinguished English scholar. The imperial court amidst all its changes had its "Palace School" for the careful education of the Emperor's children and the more gifted subjects. He established schools in all the Frankish churches and monasteries; he encouraged the multiplication of copies of the scriptures and other good books. In the larger monasteries working rooms were established for the purpose of making copies of such books as they possessed or could borrow. Charlemagne with the aid of Alcuin collected and caused to be copied one of the oldest poems in German literature, the "Nibelungenlied." And yet this monarch, who read and studied much, was never able to write his own name to his satisfaction. He therefore continued to the close of his life to confirm treaties not by affixing his signature, but by stamping the parchment with the hilt of his sword, saying as he did so, "I have sealed the treaty with the pommel of my sword and I will maintain the same with its point."

mong those soldiers who have served to advance political religious liberty, Oliver Cromwell is here well worthy of onsideration. Born at Huntingdon, England, in 1599, he d a short time at Cambridge University, and then studied n London. At twenty-one he was converted and joined uritans. At twenty-eight, while occupied as a farmer at e was chosen member of Parliament. Two years after- he obtained a commission as captain of cavalry, and enced raising troops in his county, to assist in disarming rces of Charles I. and investing Parliament with supreme s. Finding his parliamentary soldiers, for the most part, lly mercenaries, he enlisted men of religious faith and nostly farmers used to labor and fatigue. Prayer, psalm ng, and Bible reading occupied the resting hours of his . A collection of scripture texts suitable for soldiers was d and circulated, bearing on the title page the motto, your trust in God, and keep your powder dry." Crom- battle cry was some passage of scripture as "The Lord osts," or, "Let God arise, let his enemies be scattered." was formerly the fashion to represent Cromwell as a bad in the guise of a fanatic. The chapter of Hume's History ngland devoted to the Protector was in some editions d by masks and other emblems of hypocrisy, but no re- able writer of to-day tries to impeach the integrity of the ctor, or of his fellow Puritans. Guizot, Macaulay, and le, not to mention other authors, have fully vindicated haracter of this man. M. Taine says: "We considered uritans as sad fools, with narrow and scrupulous brains. us leave those worldly ideas, and try to enter into their . We shall find there a grand sentiment, 'Am I a just ' And if God, who is perfect justice, should judge me at noment, what judgment would he pass upon me?' This original idea which made the Puritans, and by means of the English Revolution."

About the year 1650, some Scotchmen complained o liberty taken by his unlicensed soldiers and laymen to pı He replied, "Are ye troubled that Christ is preached? ' I think he that prays and preaches best, will fight best." courage and skill of Cromwell and his "Ironsides" as so have never been called in question. Their victories gair Marston Moor and Naseby caused their leader to be lieutenant-general of all the forces. Their fighting qu: were equally manifest in their successes at Pembroke, Pr Warrington, and Wigan.

He raised the English navy to a commanding positio was during his administration that Admiral Blake vanqu Van Tromp and De Ruyter, thereby ending the pretensi Holland as mistress of the ocean. He was likewise th tector and benefactor of his persecuted co-religionists o continent. In 1656, two years before the end of his admin tion, he caused a large sum of money to be sent to the suff Waldenses of the Alps. Milton's sonnet composed fo occasion, "Avenge, O Lord, thy slaughtered saints," i well known to be repeated here. It is not so well known, ever, that at Cromwell's death a part of the money contri for the relief of this still starving people remained i British treasury. This was seized by Charles II., on his re tion, and applied to his own use. He called it the debt usurper, which he was not bound to pay.

This experiment made by Cromwell, of the good effe political and religious liberty in England, was destined carried into full operation in the United States, but th tector's illustrious example was a boon for all nations. own time and ever since, it has been a powerful supp many intelligent and religious communities, in their att to establish free representative government. The Protec ended at his death, and the Royalists tried either to sir name in oblivion or to make it a terror to all the friends o:

dom, but history has to testify that all England owes to him its constitutional monarchy, and New England some of the rocks which lie at the base of its religious liberty.

The Lord Protector was the friend of some of the greatest of men. John Howe was at one time his chaplain, and John Milton was his Latin secretary. To his time also belonged Baxter, Owen, Bunyan, Selden, and Hale. He supported the two great English universities, and so far from being an image breaker, in the fanatical sense of the term, he patronized painting. It was through his generosity that Raphael's Cartoons were ultimately presented to the British nation.

"A readiness for the duty of the hour, and no restlessness as to what was beyond it," says one, "appears to be the lesson of his life." His favorite maxim was, "He goes farthest who knows not whither he is going,"—a maxim because of which Cardinal Retz declared him a fool, not considering that for acting upon it more than once, the patriach Abraham received honorable mention in the apostle's roll call of Hebrew worthies.

Easy is our transition from Cromwell to Washington. The great American general inherited from the Puritans of Cromwell's day many of the qualities which formed his moral character, and his best soldiers were either descendants of the Puritans, or inheritors of their civil and religious freedom.

He was born at Bridge Creek, Westmoreland Co., Va., February 22, 1732. He was educated in the common English branches, with a good knowledge of geometry and surveying. In his boyhood, he was fond of mimic military exercises. Among his school fellows, he was so respected that appeals were often made to him in matters of dispute. But his best training was that which he received from his widowed mother, Mary. Her favorite volume was Sir Matthew Hale's "Contemplations, Moral and Divine," a religious book of the highest character. The great Chief Justice was a friend of Richard Baxter, and left among his papers a considerable number of sermons which he

wrote for his own edification. These however were not incl in his "Contemplations," which is devoted to precepts of tical piety and morality. "The maxims of this manual," Irving, "sank deep into the mind of George, and doubtles a great influence in forming his character. They are cert exemplified in his conduct. Through life, this book, be his mother's name, written with her own hand, was pres by him with filial care, and may still be seen in the archi Mount Vernon. Precious document! Let those who wi know the moral foundation of his character consult its pa

His mother's influence decided his course at one of the turning points of his career. In youth he was persuaded to sea, and his trunk had already been put on board of a anchored in the Potomac. In attempting to bid farewell mother, he found her so adverse to this adventure, th abandoned the voyage. In 1751 he was appointed adj general in one of the military districts of Virginia. In dock's company (1755) against Fort Duquesne, Washi served as aid-de-camp to the general. The British f ignorant of danger from Indian ambuscades, were repulsed. The Virginia rangers, however, broke for a whi force of the enemy. Led by our hero, they fought the sa in the style familiar to every American. He was inse to danger; four balls passed through his coat, and two were shot under him. Twenty-two years later, Washi showed the same indifference to personal safety. A battle of Princeton, he threw himself between his troops and the pursuing enemy. One of his aids, thi that the general's death was certain, drew his hat over hi that he might not see his fall. After a roar of musket aid looked up, and, to his joy, saw that his commande not hurt. It is to be presumed that the reader is not ign of the biography of Washington. By reason of small nu and comparative want of experience, as well as lack of

and ammunition, the American army was often led, not to face the enemy, but to retire before it by a series of rapid and skillful retreats. Hence Washington was not improperly called the American Fabius. Indeed, the strongest feature of his character, says one, was prudence. He seldom made any important move without the approbation of a council of war, where, after patiently hearing all statements and suggestions, he maturely weighed them, and then planned his battles accordingly. Once resolved he was not easily checked by obstacles and difficulties. His caution made him very slow to hazard his men and his cause by hasty though brilliant movements.

At the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, our hero exhibited the qualities of a gentleman in an admirable manner. Washington permitted the vanquished general to send his sword by the hand of General O'Hara, not to himself, but to Lincoln, who was selected to receive it as a recompense for the humiliation of surrendering Charleston, some months before. There was here nothing of that vanity which Count de Rochambeau, or some of his friends, displayed after his return to France. The present writer in exploring, some years since, the galleries of historic paintings which line the old palace at Versailles, was amused to notice an oil painting with the following bold inscription in French, "Cornwallis surrendering Yorktown to General Rochambeau and General Washington." It is a memorable remark that Washington's modesty was equal to his merits. On the day of the surrender, the General gave to the army the following notice: "Divine service is to be observed to-morrow in the several brigades and divisions. The Commander-in-Chief earnestly recommends that the troops, not on duty, should universally attend with that seriousness of deportment and gratitude of heart which the recognition of such reiterated and astonishing interposition of Providence demands of us."

It would be needless to refer to the eloquent eulogies that

have been pronounced on the character of our hero. One of his commanding excellencies has been seldom mentioned,—his uniform obedience to his moral convictions. From first to last, he was firm in the resolution to act, in all things, as his conscience told him was right in his relations to his God, to his country, and to himself. His example as a soldier must be felt as a moral force in every civilized land, until time shall be no more.

Probably more than any other man, Washington was instrumental in securing independence to the United States. The benefit to civilization in the establishment and maintenance of a republican form of government cannot be estimated. Since the spirit of freedom had begun to move in the hearts of men, the struggle for liberty had been going on, and now, for the first time, was attained that which had been so long striven for —political and religious liberty. Others had labored long and earnestly, yes, as unto Moses, it had only been given them to catch a glimpse of the promised land from the top of some Nebo; but Washington was the Joshua who led the people in and took possession of their heritage.

But liberty once established must be maintained by labor and watchfulness, and often by blood and treasure. Thus have we found it to be in the United States. The slave system of the Old World, with all its horrors and barbarities, was imported to the New World. At first weak, the system gradually spread itself until, by the Dred Scott Decision, it involved every state in the Union; and the people, especially those of the North, awoke to the fact that our boasted freedom was a mockery, and that to be really free this system must be abolished. Then came the long, bloody strife which resulted in the abolition of slavery. Of the man who brought this war to a successful close and who, perhaps, did more than any other man to make victorious the principles of morality and righteousness, we wish to write briefly.

Ulysses S. Grant was born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, April 1822. He came of good Puritan stock. His ancestors early moved from Connecticut to Pennsylvania, and later his father, sse Grant, went to Ohio. Young Grant, not having any taste r the occupation of his father, who was a tanner, obtained, rough the influence of Thomas L. Hamer, the congressman in ose district he lived, an appointment to the United States litary Academy at West Point. While at school he was a thful student, but not especially brilliant. He graduated mber twenty-one, in a class of thirty-nine. Soon after his duation the Mexican war broke out, and he entered the serv- here with the rank of second lieutenant. He participated in ery battle except Buena Vista, and for his gallantry was pro- ted to the rank of captain. At the close of the Mexican war remained in government employ in the West until 1852, en he resigned his commission and took up once more the e of a civilian.

When the civil war began he at once entered the service of s country, and was appointed colonel of the Twenty-first Ohio giment. His ability was soon recognized, and he received e rank of brigadier-general. He was assigned for service in e Southwest. His gallant conduct and ability at Belmont, ducah, and Fort Donelson won for him the appointment of ajor-general. The capture of Fort Donelson was of special nportance to the country, as it was the first great Union ictory.

Notwithstanding the opposition and slights of his superior ficer, Grant steadfastly adhered to his determination to serve is country when many weaker men would have resigned in lisgust. He soon found himself investing Vicksburg, the key o the navigation of the Mississippi river. Here the qualities f character which made him great came prominently into view. Although there were discouragements within and without, nothing could shake him from the accomplishment of that

which he had undertaken. He persevered until Vicksburg and such a feeling of joy as had not been before felt ran thro out the North.

He continued his victories in the Southwest until in M 1864, he was placed in command of all the armies of the U States. Then commenced that series of campaigns that (the war and forever settled the question of freedom i United States. He was contending with no mean antag Gen. Robert E. Lee was a most able commander, and his nents were Americans. It was the case of Greek m(Greek. Slowly and surely Grant dealt his sledge hammer at the Wilderness, Cold Harbor, Petersburg, and Five I While his critics were chafing at his seeming slowness, h surely ending the strife. His plans once made, he stu them with a persistency that won.

The end came, and the Rebellion was a thing of the But his grateful country awoke to the magnitude of the s rendered, and to the ability possessed by the man, and placed him in the highest position in the civilized world presidency of the United States. Well he filled the po and at the close of his term of office he once more retur private life.

The magnificent reception accorded him in foreign in his tour around the world, shows the appreciation in he was held by those outside of the United States. Fin troubles, brought on by the dishonesty of men in wh trusted, rendered him penniless in his last years, but gr friends rallied to his support, and somewhat repair broken fortunes. He died at Mount McGregor, New Yorl 23, 1885.

The greatness of his nature is shown in his entire a from jealousy. In his reports and in his "Personal Mer he is careful to give due credit to others, while stating h plans and their achievement with the utmost modesty. I

, not of words, but of actions. That determined per-
y of his was just the quality needed to bring the
n to a close. His deeds as general, his statesmanship
ident, and his modest example as a private citizen have
this country to a still higher regard among the nations
earth.

er his leadership the nation shook off the incubus of
that had so long retarded its progress, and awoke
ewer and higher life. Now North and South are one
country, and, having buried the animosities of the
e marching, shoulder to shoulder, in the onward course
ization.

REFORMS AND REFORME

THE WORK OF MARTYRS FOR THE CAUSE OF HUM

THE history of reform carries both sorrow and hop pages. Sorrow, that not merely here and there a vidual, but that whole nations, and even races o have been found at the level of the savage and bar Hope, in that it shows how wide and far-reaching fo even under the most adverse circumstances, is the in and work of a single reformer, a hope that grows bi the mighty influence of righteousness is extended am nations. Ignorance is the prolific mother of many ind and public evils, and like all mothers it stoutly resists struction of its offspring. The ignorant are subje oppression, and become degraded, yet they make littl effort to elevate their condition, or to throw off the opp yoke. Ignorance soon creates vice and filth, yet the have but little desire to be cleanly or decent. Sin brin pidity and disregard for right or righteousness, and the seldom wishes to be disturbed.

From the "days when the earth was young" to the darkness and wickedness, the inevitable results of ign to a greater or less degree have had dominion over the m men; and even now with all the light of six thousand yea perience, there are peoples but little removed from those fi who clad themselves in the skins of wild beasts and ma homes in caves. The tendency of human nature left t has seemed to be down rather than up; but here an

John Howard
Wendell Phillips
Father Matthew
EMANCIPATION
Reformation.
Luther.

nong the nations of the earth, during the ages, have appeared en who have bravely breasted the current of evil and by their herent force and God-given wisdom have convinced men of eir errors and turned them to a better way. In their own ime they have not as a rule been popular, but rather have been he objects of ridicule and persecution and, in many cases, of nartyrdom, because men were so blinded by their ignorance nd their superstitions. Like oases in a boundless Sahara these men stand out among their fellow men, and more and more as time passes will their deeds be praised and their memories cherished.

In almost all ages there have been reforms and reformers, but all the *great* reforms have come in comparatively modern times, and most of them fall within the nineteenth century. Of course the whole christianized world will at once admit that Christ was the Great Reformer and that his teachings have been at the foundation of all true reform. So, recognizing him in his true capacity, it is our purpose to treat of the deeds of those who were simply *men*, and to show how they have brought good out of evil for their fellow men. Necessarily in the multitude of reformers we can mention but a few of the most prominent.

At the head of reforms would we place the great religious reform known in history as the Reformation. The church established by Christ and extended by his disciples and the Christian fathers of the early centuries had wandered far from its primal purity. John Wyclif, born in Yorkshire, England, in 1324, a priest of the Roman church, was one of the first to revolt from its teaching. He first opposed the intervention of the Pope in temporal affairs—a topic which he discussed at length in his work called *De Civile Dominio.* His attention was next turned to the inadequate teaching of gospel truths afforded by the church to the common people. To correct the defect he took the two measures of sending among the people

men to preach the simple truths of Christ and of making t first complete English version of the Bible. He was excom municated by the Pope, but his teachings gained such a fo hold in England that he was protected by the people from m tyrdom. To the end of his life he continued by preaching a by writing to advocate earnestly the reform he had espous He not only was the pioneer of religious reform, but also l his sermons and tracts, together with his English translation the Bible, he became the founder of English prose writing.

At the beginning of the fifteenth century the writings Wyclif found their way to John Huss, dean of the faculty the University of Prague in Bohemia, a man of deep learni and an earnest seeker after truth. He became at once int ested in the subjects discussed by Wyclif, and was convinc of the truth of Wyclif's conclusions. His changed views once manifested themselves in his teachings and public d courses. At length a complaint was made against him and eve effort was made by the Roman church to induce him to des from his heretical course. But he said, "In the things whi pertain to salvation, God is to be obeyed rather than man," a continued uninterruptedly to preach the gospel. He was communicated. Yet he never wavered in his adherence to t truth. He wrote and printed his views at length in *De Eccles* which furnished the material for the capital charge brou against him. He was arrested, accused of heresy, and, afte partisan trial, burned at the stake, July 6, 1415. Unquesti ably Huss formed the connecting link between Wyclif a Luther. Convinced of his error by the writings of Wyclif, his own teaching and writing he somewhat aroused the G man mind, and in some degree laid the foundation for the gr work of Luther.

Next in order of the religious reformers was Girolar Savonarola, the patriot priest and statesman of Italy. H work was not so much a revolt against the tenets and doctrin

ıan church as against the immoralities he saw practiced
: was born in 1452, and was educated for a physician,
ın gave up his profession to engage in God's service.
a priest he was sent to Florence, then one of the
well as one of the most dissolute cities of Italy.
by the sin openly practiced everywhere around him,
d men of the wrath to come. His eloquence was
ɜ. Thousands of his countrymen heeded his teach-
ırence was completely changed and morality and
ɔok the place of corruption and vice. But necessarily
condemn the corruptions of the church and thus
ts hate. By order of the Pope he was strangled and his
ıed May 23, 1498. He was unlike most of the other
reformers in that he never wavered in his belief in
: of the church, but devoted his life to the correction
ils in it. His teachings had an influence in Italy
: never been effaced, and which went to swell the sum
ces that produced the Reformation.

gh we owe much to Wyclif, Huss, and Savonarola
ginnings of the Reformation, yet for practical results
and for the complete establishment of the Protestant
Martin Luther must be recognized as the great
ıfluence. He was born at Eisleben in Germany,
: 10, 1493. His father, a stonecutter by trade, was a
ınt. The boy so distinguished himself in the village
at his father determined to make a lawyer of him,
ıis purpose sent him to a Franciscan school at Magde-
afterwards to a school at Eisenach. In 1502 he won
lor's degree, and in 1505 his master's degree at the
: Erfurt. While here the preaching of the faithful
Wisemann, made so deep an impression on his mind
solved to give up the law and become a monk. Ac-
he entered the Augustinian convent in 1505. Here
ıed two years, steadily pursuing theological and phil-

osophical studies, and especially making the Bible the chief object of his thought and study. In 1507 he was ordained a priest, and soon appointed a professor in the University of Wittenberg. Here by his scholarly lectures on the Bible he drew great crowds of hearers, and he became famous throughout Germany for his learning and his eloquence. About this time he went to Rome, probably in the fulfillment of some vow. He started a mediæval Christian and returned a Protestant. The hollow pretences, the vain show, and the vices openly practiced by the professed ministers of God at the ecclesiastical center horrified the pious young German. He at once began anew to study the Bible and to lecture both at the university and in the neighboring cities on his peculiar views of the relation between the law and the gospels.

In 1517 came that crowning act of corruption, invented by Pope Leo X. to replenish his depleted treasury,—the sale of indulgences. John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, was the agent for the nefarious commerce in Saxony. Luther knew by his own soul struggles that the forgiveness of God could not be purchased for money. Then he wrote out his famous ninety-five theses and nailed them to the door of the church in Wittenberg. At once all Germany was in a blaze. Pilgrims who had come to Wittenberg to buy indulgences returned with Luther's theses in their hands. These theses for the first time opened the eyes of the Germans to the blasphemy of the practice. Luther had aimed his blow at indulgences, but it took effect much more widely than he thought, for it struck at all the vicious practices that had grown up in the church.

Luther had no idea, in the beginning, of leaving the established church, but compelled by the controversy to study carefully its ancient history, he soon discovered the fraud and imposture by which the canon law had been foisted on the church. The result of these studies he spread abroad through Germany. The Pope, after vainly trying to win Luther back or to silence

[illegible], issued his bull of excommunication. Luther replied by [illegible]rning the bull in front of the university at Wittenburg, while [illegible]e of his fellow professors burned the canon law of the church, [illegible]nifying that thenceforth Germany was to be ruled by the [illegible]w of the land and not by the law of Rome. The news flashed [illegible]er Germany. The Pope had fired his last shot, and Luther [illegible]as unhurt; if he was to be crushed only the Emperor could do [illegible]. The Pope at once appealed to the Emperor to stamp out the [illegible]eresy that was gaining such a hold in his country. Charles [illegible]., a Catholic by education and by policy, promised to do it, [illegible]t he was not able to keep his promise. The conscience of the [illegible]hlegmatic Germans was aroused; if the Emperor crushed [illegible]uther, the people crushed the Emperor. At the summons of [illegible]e Emperor, Luther appeared before the diet held at Worms [illegible]nd argued his case. When asked the crucial question, "Will [illegible]ou recant?" he replied, "I cannot and will not retract any[illegible]hing; for to act against conscience is unsafe and unholy. I [illegible]an do naught else. Here I stand. So help me, God."

As far as he could see this answer meant death; yet there [illegible]as no sign of wavering. The Emperor issued his edict placing Luther under the ban of the empire. His goods were to be confiscated and he was to be an outlaw in his native land. But [illegible]he leaven of his preaching was working. Germany had been [illegible]wakened, and to injure Luther would call down upon the Emperor's head the vengeance of the common people.

Protected by his friends he completed a translation of the Scriptures into the German tongue, which is still the standard of the German language and has preserved the unity of the language through all the political disintegration.

Long and bitter was the contest before the new faith gained [illegible] firm footing in Germany. Beset by foes within and without, [illegible]etrayed by friends in whom he trusted, for many years Luther's [illegible]ife was one constant struggle. Only his indomitable will and [illegible]is perfect faith in God and the justness of his cause carried

him through these times of trial. His last years wer quiet, and at his death, in 1546, he had the satisfaction ing Protestantism firmly established in his native land. the Protestant nations of the earth unite in honoring h by his learning, eloquence, and devotion to truth w the victory which forever established the Protestant f Germany.

The work set in motion by these men was carrie others in the different states of Europe. John Calvin in generally recognized as the father of the French Huguen valiant service for the new faith in formulating its d and clearly defining its tenets. His teachings still in Protestantism to a marked degree. Zwingli in Switzerla the foundation for the modern Protestant church wh dominates in that country, and laid down his life on th field bravely defending his faith. In England Cranme bishop of Canterbury, with Ridley and Latimer, brav successfully carried forward the work begun by Wy under the "Bloody Mary" added their names to the lon martyrs for the faith.

Thus the reform moved on, gradually gaining grou eliminating the evil, until in America through the fa persistency of the Pilgrims we have Protestantism at —perfect freedom to worship God according to the pro of one's own conscience, and the complete separation of and state.

The teachings of Christ have always tended more a to develop the love of man for his fellow man. The nea has come to following out these teachings the more no has been this result. Heathen Rome and Greece we pletely selfish and so are heathen countries now as reg love of man for man. The past ages are black with practiced by the strong on the weak and unfortunate. Pe no direction has this cruelty been more prominent tha

treatment of prisoners, whether prisoners of war or criminals. Jailers have felt in no way disposed to treat the prisoner even decently. Never have brutes at the hands of their masters received such merciless treatment as has been received by prisoners in the past ages and even in comparatively modern times. Confined in cells not fit for animals, without occupation, fed on the vilest of food, subjected to gross abuse and cruelty from their keepers, prisoners might well dread their lot. In England in 1773, the jailer, not receiving any salary from the state, rigorously exacted whatever he could get from the prisoners, and thousands of persons whose term of imprisonment had expired or who had been declared by juries not guilty of the crimes charged, were still kept in confinement because they were unable to pay the fees demanded by the jailer. The prisoner was handed over to the jailer and that was the last the public knew or cared about him.

Such was the state of things when John Howard, the great prison reformer, began his work. He was born in Enfield, England, September 2, 1726. At the close of a very hasty education, he was apprenticed by his father to a firm of London grocers, but his father died in a short time leaving him considerable property. He gave up business and spent several years in travel on the continent. During this time the ship in which he was sailing was taken by the French and carried into Brest, where the passengers were treated with great harshness and almost starved. This first opened his eyes to the treatment of prisoners of war. In 1773 he was elected high sheriff of Bedford, and then his life work began. He immediately investigated the prisons in his district and was horrified at their condition. At once he applied to the state to correct the most glaring of the evils and to give the jailers a fixed salary instead of allowing them to grind what they could from the prisoners. He searched the country over for some precedent for such reform, but in vain ; but he did find such gross iniquities perpetrated,

and such awful suffering among the prisoners, that he resolved to devote his life and fortune to the amelioration of their condition. He went before parliament and gave his report of the condition of the English prisons. A vote of thanks was given him and some remedial legislation was enacted.

He now resolved to make an inspection of the prisons o Europe. In Holland he was struck with the absence of crime and attributed it to the reformatory treatment which was ap plied to the prisoners. On his return to England he attempte to have the same system adopted there and after a long contes he was successful. One after another of the abuses he attacke and had the satisfaction of seeing them abolished. Owing t the proverbial slowness of the English law-making powers, i was a long, discouraging struggle. A weak man would hav given up, but the wrongs of the prisoners were so stamped o his mind that nothing but death could stop his efforts.

He died January 29, 1790, knowing that he had done mor than any other man to alleviate the unnecessary sufferings o his fellow men. The reform once set in motion continued unti we have our modern prison system, which is as much bette than that of the eighteenth century as light is better than darkness.

The present educational system in the United States and in the most of Europe is excellent. The child is treated as a rational being and rational methods are used to develop him mentally, morally, and physically. The old method was to pour in, the new is to draw out. No wonder the child rebelled and hated his teacher under the old method, which was to force a prescribed amount of the different branches into the child's memory without appealing to his reason or imagination at all. Like all great reforms one man did not complete the work, but the ruling spirit of the change was Pestalozzi. He was not distinguished for learning or ability; his were the higher talents of a noble enthusiasm for the elevation of his race and an

ıaustible love for man. Following the example of our e Master, he gave himself for the good of man. By his efforts he became the medium through which all that was in educational theory up to his time obtained permanent nition.

hn Henry Pestalozzi was born at Zurich, Switzerland, in He never distinguished himself as a student, but he ɜd that tender, loving consideration for all, that was the of his success. After successively trying the ministry, ınd farming, and failing in each, he opened a school for children. His plan was to combine education with remu- ve labor, but after five years he was obliged to give up heme for lack of money. Although a financial failure, this iment greatly enriched him in educational experience. ıext few years of his life were devoted to writing as a ɜ of subsistence. His masterpiece was "Leonard and ıde," an account of the gradual reformation, first, of a hold and then of a whole village, by the efforts of a good levoted woman. This book was very widely read and ced a lasting influence on education.

1805, after considerable experience in other places, he d a school at Yverdun, in which he achieved his world- success. His school became the Mecca of educational ms. Kings and philosophers united in showing their ciation of his work. For twenty years he labored here, by his work, laid the foundation of educational reform. 27 he died, lamented by the thousands whose lives he nade better.

is conception of education was that of a natural, progres- and symmetrical development of all the powers and facul- f the human being. His method was to proceed from the r to the more difficult, to begin with observation, to pass observation to consciousness, from consciousness to speech. the great secret of his success, and of the success of all

teaching, was the tender love and sympathy he had for his pupils, which inspired in them perfect trust in their teacher.

One of the most illustrious of the disciples of Pestalozzi was Frederick Froebel, born in Thuringia in 1782. After a desultory education he spent two years with Pestalozzi. Here he found the calling into which he could throw his whole soul. He took all that was best in the methods of his teacher, and by his own experience supplemented and improved them. Gradually the conviction came to him that a change in the earliest methods of instruction was necessary to a thorough educational reform. Hence he founded the kindergarten, on which rests his fame. He was the first to appreciate fully the value of women as educators. He recognized their greater tenderness, deeper sympathy, and greater adaptability to childish ways. He regarded women as his allies in educational reforms, and to his appeal they have nobly responded. Through their agency, chiefly has the kindergarten been introduced into Europe and America.

In America, probably Horace Mann has done more for our school system than any one else. Appointed in 1837 to the school board of Massachusetts, for twelve years he toiled unceasingly to develop this ideal system in the common and normal schools of the state. He studied the schools in Europe and incorporated into his system all that was best in their schools. His twelve annual reports have had more influence in shaping the policy of the common schools of the northern part of the United States than all else that has been written.

Mary Lyon, the founder of Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary now Mt. Holyoke College, was the first American educator to lay stress on the symmetrical development of the person, mentally, physically, spiritually. The noble women that have gone forth from her school, and the excellent results that are being at present attained, show conclusively the correctness of her theory. Now in the United States there are many schools modeled after this one.

After a bitter fight coeducation is gradually becoming the rule. In most of the cities of the United States coeducation exists in all the public schools. In the colleges there has been more conservatism : but now all the state universities are open to each sex on equal terms, also many of the denominational colleges. In the West, especially, there has been more advance in the movement than in the East, but probably the time is not far distant when most of the colleges will be coeducational, except, perhaps, those founded especially for women.

The educational system of the greater part of the United States is excellent. To the child of the poor man and to the child of the rich the public schools are free. The best teachers and facilities obtainable are put into the schools. Opportunities never dreamed of fifty years ago are now offered to the youth. Thousands of noble men and women trained in the best schools of the land are giving their untiring thought and energy to improve more and more the methods of instruction and to bring the schools nearer perfection. Much more emphasis is now placed on moral training in the public schools and the teaching of true patriotism. Glorious system ! the safeguard of the Republic !

Of all the crimes perpetrated by man against his fellow man, the worst has been the system of slavery. Founded on the unrighteous principle that men were not created free and equal in the enjoyment of their rights and their liberty, it has always given man a plausible excuse to abuse his brother man. Wherever the system has prevailed, there has come sin, degradation, and suffering. The system is as old as history itself. In Greece our first glimpse of slavery is in the Helots of ancient Sparta. The Dorians, subduing the country, reduced its inhabitants to slavery. Afterwards the system spread to Athens and then all over Greece. In early times the slaves seemed to be treated more mercifully, but as wealth and power increased more and more bitter became their lot.

The history of slavery in Rome is marked by gross cruelty and degradation. At first, when the republic was in its infancy, they were treated kindly, but as conquest enlarged the countr and brought in vast wealth and thousands of captives as slaves kindness was changed to cruelty. To illustrate the awfu cruelty practiced on the helpless slaves, after the suppressio of the revolt of Spartacus, Crassus set a row of crosses, numbe ing about thirty thousand, along the Appian way from Rom to Capua, with a living slave nailed to each cross. Rome slavery was one of the most potent forces that contribute to her overthrow. Coming as they did from the dregs of a the earth, they brought with them all the vices peculiar to the different countries, so that Juvenal well said that the Oront and the Nile had poured all their filth into Rome.

So down through the Empire the system continued to tl overthrow of the nation, and down through the middle ages, all countries, to modern times. From the earliest times the have been rare cases of emancipation of slaves, and in the se ond and third centuries through Christian influence their tre ment began to be much more humane, and gradually the disappeared in the most of Europe every form of serfdom: b the importation of slaves from Africa took the place of t former system. In some respects this last system was wor than the first, for it turned all civilized nations into ma catchers and Africa became their common hunting ground. pen can adequately describe the horrors and cruelties of t African slave trade. In the last of the seventeenth centu England began to awake to the enormity of the sin. The fi real opposition to the system came from the Quakers, but th influence was too small to accomplish much. Soon, howev William Wilberforce began his investigation of the system a put such an array of facts before Parliament that a commissi was appointed to inquire into the condition of the slaves. T investigations and discussions began in 1787, and in 1807 slave

was formally abolished in England by act of Parliament. William Wilberforce was, in a great measure, instrumental in bringing about this result.

France, after the bloody struggle in which she lost her most valuable colony in the new world, Hayti, and after Toussaint L'Ouverture had shown the world that an African could be a hero, also abolished slavery.

In the United States the agitation for abolition of slavery began almost as soon as the government was formed, but determined opposition to the system did not develop until 1820. Then Benjamin Lundy, the pioneer abolitionist, began his work. He was followed by Garrison, Lovejoy, Sumner, Wendell Phillips, John Brown, and Harriet Beecher Stowe. All of these, in their respective spheres, did valiant service for the cause. Charles Sumner's magnificent work in the United States Senate in behalf of freedom will never be forgotten. Wendell Phillips, the silver-tongued orator, by his matchless eloquence did much to arouse public conscience. Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin" put before the North so vividly the awful picture of human bondage that blinded eyes were opened.

Lovejoy and Brown gave their lives, rejoicing to be martyrs in the cause. But over and above these, in the measure of his influence and success achieved, was William Lloyd Garrison, who was born in Newburyport, Mass., in 1805. His early life was spent in a printing office, where he became both a skillful compositor and a ready writer. He first attracted public attention by a series of political articles written for the *Salem Gazette*, in the office of which he was employed. After two or three experiments in publishing newspapers, he began, in 1830, the publication of the *Liberator*, the organ by which he did his great work. Its motto was "Our country is the world—our countrymen are mankind." Garrison tried to abolish slavery by moral suasion alone. By his paper and by his lectures he strove to awaken the conscience of the people to the great wrong it was

committing. Ceaselessly he toiled until, in 1865, his object accomplished, he gave up his paper. His was not an easy task. All sorts of abuse was heaped upon him and he nearly suffered death by a mob in the streets of his own city, Boston. But, never wavering, he held on where a weak man would have succumbed. He died in New York city, May 24, 1879, sincerely mourned by the millions whom he had helped to freedom.

All these reformers whom we have mentioned worked to make freedom possible, but did not in themselves bring freedom. This glorious result was left to Abraham Lincoln. By his Emancipation Proclamation the great work was done. The shackles fell from the limbs of four million human beings, and for the first time the United States could lift her head in the proud consciousness that no longer the foul blot of slavery rested on her. Washington was the father of his country, but Lincoln was its savior and liberator.

Intemperance in the use of intoxicants is and always has been world wide. In civilized countries it is conceded to be the worst evil with which the world has to contend. It numbers its victims by millions annually and imposes untold suffering on the widows and orphans of the victims. It ruins men mentally, morally, and physically. According to the most reliable authorities it is the source of three quarters of all crime and the cause of the greater part of the expense for prisons and care of paupers. The awful loss of life in some great battles has struck men with horror, but every year intemperance slays more than ever fell in any battle and the great majority of men look on unmoved.

That intemperance was extensive in Ancient Greece we find from the Memorabilia of Socrates written by his disciple Xenophon. Also in the works of Plato there are frequent exhortations against the intemperate use of intoxicants. All through the Scriptures we see that it was the curse of the Jews, and the

'erbs of Solomon graphically describe the degradation and ry of the drunkard.

he Roman satirists, Lucilius and Juvenal, give a very vivid re of the horrible drunkenness of many of the Roman ı. Unquestionably intemperance was one of the factors in egeneration and final fall of Rome.

l through the ages to the present, whenever we get ıses of the life of the people, we find the curse of intem- ce doing its deadly work. At present nearly every civi- country, in a measure, comprehends the ruin wrought by ıractice and has legislation intended to limit it. Until 1785 no special efforts were made to suppress intemper-

that year Dr. Rush wrote his famous essay on the "Effect dent Spirits on the Human Body and Mind." In 1808 Dr. ın Beecher and Dr. J. B. Clark, both readers of Dr. Rush's e, began to use their influence against the use of intoxi- . Through the efforts of Dr. Clark the first temperance y of the world was formed at Greenfield, New York. was soon followed by other societies, but in most of these ;ocieties the prohibition extended only to distilled liquors, nembers being free to use as much fermented liquor as chose. Gradually they took better moral views of the evil fermented liquors also were prohibited and people became abstainers.

ı tracing the history of temperance reform no one man ıs to stand out prominently as the world's leader as in most r reforms ; but two names are worthy of mention as having ɜ more perhaps than any others to further this great cause. 'heobald Mathew, generally known as "Father Mathew," born in Tipperary, Ireland, in 1790. He was educated at University of Dublin and was ordained to the priesthood of Catholic church. He entered on his work in Cork. The 'ul degradation and misery that he daily saw as the result

of intemperance stirred the good man's soul against the e
He at once began to preach total abstinence, and in less t
nine months, by his great moral influence and his eloquence, c
one hundred and fifty thousand had enrolled themselves t
abstainers. The movement rapidly spread and so succes
was it that in two days, at Galway, he secured one hun
thousand names to the pledge. His work spread in Eng
with like success, and twice, in 1849 and in 1851, he visited
United States with like results. His arguments and his
quence were irresistible. It is believed that nearly five mi
men and women were reformed by his personal efforts.

John B. Gough was born in Sandgate, England, Augu
1817, and came to the United States in 1829. For several
he worked at the bookbinder's trade. In 1839 he married,
having become very intemperate, he sank into the gre
poverty and lost his wife and son. Being induced to tak
pledge and to speak at a public meeting, his ability was
and he was urged to take the platform as a temperanc
turer. Once under pressure of great temptation he fell, b
rose again, and for ten years did such a work in the U
States as no man had ever done before, and by him thou
were reformed. He went to England and the same wond
success attended him there. Returning to the United Stat
combined other subjects with temperance and continued t
ture until within a short time of his death, in 1886. The r
of his efforts can never be estimated, but probably over a m
people were reformed by him, and the impetus given t
temperance work throughout the country was tremendous.
"Maine liquor law," which has been copied in several s
and the incorporation of instruction in regard to the effe
intoxicants on the human system into the curriculum o
public schools, may be traced to the influences set in moti
this benefactor of his race.

Among the organizations that have done noble work for

ance may be mentioned the Sons of Temperance, number-
hundreds of thousands, and the Independent Order of
d Templars, which probably numbers nearly one million
nbers in the United States alone. The latter has con-
l its work more especially to the young, and has had re-
table success. But, without question, the organization that
ving the most influence in enacting temperance legislation
in various ways arousing public consciousness, at the pres-
s the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, which was
led in 1874, in the United States. It was an outgrowth of
Women's Crusade of the middle states in 1872. The instruc-
n the effects of alcohol on the human body, in the public
ls. and, in fact, most of the recent temperance legislation,
gely due to the influence wielded by this body. They now
er about three hundred thousand. Their present presi-
Miss Frances E. Willard, may justly be placed among the
temperance reformers of the world.

us the reforms of the world move on, not at a uniform
but rather like tidal waves when some convulsion of na-
has forced the waters of the ocean far above their usual
But, unlike the ocean, society does not return to its pre-
level after the wave of reform has swept by, but each
carries it higher and higher towards that goal of all hu-
progress—perfection.

TEMPERANCE AND RESCU

WOMAN'S SERVICE AND SACRIFICE OF LOVE.

IN the temperance cause woman has been an importa tor from the very beginning. But beyond isolated of reform, beyond the personal appeal, beyond occa instances of local restraint, accomplished by the efforts of men and women in such organizations as the S Temperance, the independent Order of Good Templa permanent good had been accomplished, no national atte reform had been made.

The organization of the Woman's Christian Temp Union marks the time when the great fight with the gi monster of intemperance really began.

The twenty-first annual gathering of this great temp movement was held, and most appropriately too, at Clev Ohio, in November, 1894, where the national organizatic formed twenty years ago. Its development has been won for the society has spread into the ends of the earth, and neficent influence is constantly extending and steadily d ing. The International Union now includes fifty-nine n and provinces. The beginning of the organization wa eloquently sketched by its honored president, Miss Fran Willard, in her address at the opening of the conventio other is so worthy as she to be its leading spokesman occasion of its coming of age. Her words in part we following:—

The child of the crusade has lived out its eager youth and s on the threshold of mature womanhood. On the 23d day cember, 1873, the first praying band of Ohio bridged with ul feet the distance between church and dram-shop. As nagic, similar processions began to move throughout the until in the fifty days of their unexampled faith and , the liquor traffic was banished from two hundred and owns and villages. We date our origin from that red-day, set like another Christmas in the drear December, to that dawn is sure to follow darkness. In the bright er following (August, 1874), at beautiful Chautauqua, ummer camp which is the paradise of women, a com- of the crusaders decreed that this movement should be natized; and put forth to their comrades everywhere a come to Cleveland in November and form a national r. To the convention we rallied from mountain and , seaside and river, cottage and hall; but the cottagers hief, for in every great on-moving of humanity it is not liment of the wave, nor yet its foaming whitecap, that s weight, but it is the solid, resistless wave itself, and the wave goes the whitecaps follow."

its influence she spoke the following glowing words: prayer of the crusade has become the plan of many of olest patriots of the land. Protestantism has forged for- toward prohibition; the Christian voter is less purblind egins to perceive that the paramount duty of the hour is very man should feel that he must be a good citizen in to be a good Christian. The pope's representative in this ry has indorsed the right of any bishop to exclude from craments those who belong to the liquor dealers' camp. bition by law, by politics, by woman's ballot, is the watch- of the temperance army in all nations. The aggregated ystematic self-respect of women is making itself felt st the debasing exhibitions of her form, whether pictured

or real, before audiences of immoral men. The victory g by Lady Henry Somerset, Mrs. Ormiston Chant, and white ribbon women, in bringing evidence to the L County Council which caused it by a vote of seventy-fi thirty-two to refuse liquor and promenade hall licenses, s prominent places of amusement in London are closed, i haps the strongest proof that a better day has dawne deserves to rank beside the victory of women in Kentuck the perjured Breckinridge, and of women in New York the tiger of Tammany."

The United States, by right of being mother to the movement, stands at the head of the long list of countrie women of which are now bound together to labor for the n of the world from the thraldom of intemperance. Taki rise in the Woman's Temperance Crusade of 1874, und direction of the women of this country, it has led the way development of more than forty departments of work, th eral divisions of which are Evangelistic, Organization, Pr tive, Educational, Social, and Legal. The first presiden Mrs. Annie Wittenmeyer. Since 1878 Miss Frances E. W has been the cherished and honored leader; and to her and eloquent captaincy the organization and the work much. A great spiritual power marked the movement which the organization grew; for the women who led i memorable crusade went out to the task after hours sp prayer, and with prayer to Almighty God as their str weapon and sure protection.

All the states and territories are now organized an cered; the membership includes nearly one hundred an thousand with a following of not less than three hu thousand. The National Union has projected many undertakings and has some that are connected with way of affiliated interests; among these are the Na Temperance Hospital, the Temple, the Woman's Temp

Publishing Association, the introduction of scientific temperance instruction in the public schools, and the circulation of the Polyglot Petition.

The National Temperance Hospital was founded in 1884 and is located in Chicago, 1619 Diversey avenue. Mrs. Matilda E. Kline is president of the hospital board of directors, and Dr. Sarah Hackett Stevenson, the leading woman physician of Chicago, is president of the regular staff of physicians. This hospital was instituted with the avowed object of scientifically demonstrating to the world that alcohol can be dispensed with in the treatment of disease. The Clara Barton Training School for Nurses is a part of its plan, and both are highly successful. At its annual graduating exercises on April 22, 1895, Dr. John R. Boynton, a leading Chicago physician, said, in his address to the four graduates, "I regard this as the finest hospital, all told, in the country. Regulars and homeopaths never quarrel here, and I think we are setting an example for our brothers the world around."

The Woman's Temperance Publishing Association is the largest publication society of women in the world. It has headquarters in the Temple at Chicago. It has had but sixteen years of life, yet its postage bill in 1892 was over ten thousand dollars, and the number of pages printed one hundred and thirty-five millions. The World's and National Woman's Christian Temperance Union official organ, the *Union Signal*, is its principal publication; this paper goes to fifty countries of the earth and its average weekly circulation is eighty thousand. As might reasonably be expected, Frances E. Willard is the editor-in-chief; Lady Henry Somerset, corresponding editor; Miss Margaret A. Sudduth, managing editor; Jennie A. Stewart and Mrs. Clara C. Chapin, associate editors; Mrs. Katharine Lente Stevenson, contributing editor, and Mrs. Caroline F. Grow is business manager. The administration of its affairs is by a board of directors composed of women.

whose president is Mrs. Matilda B. Carse. Monthly Bible readings and responsive readings relating to all the departments of work are among its regular publications for the assistance of the unions, a paper for the young women, and one for the children, besides an enormous amount and great variety of books and leaflets which are necessary to meet the needs of this organization of such vast and far-reaching extent.

The Temple, which some one has called "the great monument of the modern temperance reform, the milepost of the century's philanthropy," is certainly a marvelous monument to woman's faith and enterprise. Its location is in the very heart of the business thoroughfares of Chicago, at the corner of Monroe and La Salle streets. In height it is thirteen stories; its cost was one million one hundred thousand dollars. Its proportions are beautiful. Here are to be found Willard Hall, a room large enough to hold seven hundred persons, and here are located all those great publishing interests heretofore referred to. There is also office room sufficient to make the annual receipts from rental two hundred thousand dollars. No liquor or tobacco can be sold under its roof. It is lined throughout in white marble and has two beautiful fountains; one is at the entrance to Willard Hall and was furnished by the women of Chautauqua county, New York, the other designed by Miss Whitney, the sculptor, is named the Frances Willard Fountain and stands in front of the Temple. Its design is a little bronze maiden standing on a granite pedestal into which are carved steps to enable little children to reach their cups to catch the cold water as it drips from the cup held by the bronze maiden. Below is a trough from which tired and thirsty animals can obtain the clear sparkling water.

This fountain is the gift of the children belonging to the Loyal Temperance Legion all over the world. They gathered the dimes that paid for the fountain. It is their memorial gift to the city of Chicago, and it was expected that the unveiling

would occur during the Columbian Exposition, but various detentions occurred, and it was not until April 27, 1895, that the dedication took place. It seems strange, but the first contributions for this object came from two little girls in Spain. Miss Anna A. Gordon, superintendent of the Loyal Temperance Legion for the World's W. C. T. U., was the originator of the idea, which, with the co-operation of all national, state, and county superintendents, reached such a beautiful consummation.

Mrs. Elizabeth Wheeler Andrew, in an address at the World's Congress of Representative Women, said a most notable achievement of the Woman's Christian Union of the United States was that of "obtaining laws in all the states of the Union, save eight, requiring that the baleful effects of alcohol, opium, and tobacco be taught in all grades of the public schools, and a national law requiring the same teaching to be given in all schools in the District of Columbia and the territories, also in all national, military, and naval academies, thus bringing more than twelve millions of children under this beneficent instruction."

At the head of this department for the world, as well as the national organization, is Mrs. Mary H. Hunt of Massachusetts, whose work in this department has been so thorough that now since New York has recently passed a bill for a stronger temperance educational law, to which Governor Morton's signature has been affixed, there are only two states in the Union—Arkansas and Georgia—that have not passed some kind of scientific temperance instruction bill; and in 1893, this part of the work had extended, with some limitations as to method, interest, and legal force, to Canada, Sweden, Finland, Germany, Bulgaria, Turkey, India, Siam, China, Japan, South Australia, Queensland, New Zealand, Victoria, Hawaiian Islands, South Africa, and Mexico.

Of the origin of the Great Polyglot Petition, the originator

herself, Miss Frances Willard, says: "When, in the year 1883, it was borne in upon my spirit, as I breathed the ozone of the Pacific coast, that except for an interval of water the shores of China and Japan abutted against our own, with that concept, the determination was fixed to extend the work of the white ribbon women to those opium-cursed shores. I felt that we must not only send out our pioneers to reconnoiter the ground and establish the local societies, but we must bind all our workers together by a common interest in the education of public sentiment against the use and sale of brain poisons; but many years of associated and systematic temperance work had taught me that to focus the attention of a multitude some visible object lesson must be provided; and then came the thought of a petition to be circulated in all nations, in which women of every race should unite in an appeal to each government to abolish all governmental sanctions of the alcohol and opium trade, and to lift the standard of purity of life to that of Christian morals, in which 'there is neither male nor female,' but a 'white life for two' in the practical standard of everyday living."

Thus it originated. Its circulation began in the autumn of 1883 in the extreme west of the United States, by the hands of Mrs. Mary Clement Leavitt of Boston; she carried it next to the Sandwich Islands, Australia, and, during a pilgrimage of nine years' duration, to nearly every civilized land beneath the sun. This was also the beginning of the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union; for during this tour Mrs. Leavitt devoted herself to the organization in all the countries she visited. In the Sandwich Islands, Australia, Madagascar, Africa, Burmah, India, China, Madeira, Mauritius, Ceylon, Siam, the Straits Settlements, Corea, Japan, and Europe, she told the story of the woman's crusade against drink in the United States, and of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, which was the organized form of that great uprising.

ıe made known the white ribbon as the badge of purity, ɜace, patriotism, and prohibition, urged the observance of the ɔontide hour of prayer, and secured pledges of total abstiɜnce and service. No woman in the history of the world has ıade an expedition at once so long, so varied, and so producve of good results. She laid the foundations deep and strong nd broad, and her name is revered in all lands where she ttered her messages of righteousness. Wherever she went she arried the Polyglot Petition, which through her efforts was igned in well-nigh fifty languages, by persons of all races, ationalities, and religions.

The work of circulating this petition has gone on for more han ten years, and had when it went to England to be present t the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union Convenion, held in June, 1895, about seven and one half million inɔrsements. Mrs. R. C. Shurman of Evanston, Illinois, is the naker of the petition, the work on which she began in 1890, .nd which has occupied her time for two years. It is made of vhite cloth, the edges of which are bound with white and blue ibbon. The signatures are pasted to the cloth, arranged in hree columns. When it has been "the rounds" of the leading ountries of the world, in care of a commission of white ribbon vomen, it will be placed in some prominent museum with the eal of the society upon the box in which it is inclosed, and ı command that it must not be opened until all that it calls for ıas been accomplished. This celebrated petition reads as folows:—

POLYGLOT PETITION.

Honored Rulers, Representatives, and Brothers:

We, your Petitioners, although belonging to the physically weaker ex, are strong of heart to love our homes, our native land, and the vorld's family of nations.

We know that clear brains and pure hearts make honest lives and appy homes, and that by these the nations prosper, and the time is rought nearer when the world shall be at peace.

We know that indulgence in Alcohol and Opium, and in other vices which disgrace our social life, makes misery for all the world, and most of all for us and for our children.

We know that stimulants and opiates are sold under legal guarantees which make the Governments partners in the traffic, by accepting as revenue a portion of the profits, and we know with shame that they are often forced by treaty upon populations, either ignorant or unwilling.

We know that the law might do much, now left undone, to raise the moral tone of society and render vice difficult.

We have no power to prevent these great iniquities beneath which the whole world groans, but you have power to redeem the honor of the nations from an indefensible complicity.

We therefore come to you with the united voices of representative women of every land, beseeching you to raise the standard of the law to that of Christian morals, to strip away the safeguards and sanctions of the state from the drink traffic and the opium trade, and to protect our homes by the total prohibition of these curses of civilization throughout all the territory over which your government extends.

Names.	Residences.

Mrs. Leavitt returned to America in 1891, to attend the first World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union Convention, which was held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, Massachusetts, November 10th and 11th. At this convention Mrs. Leavitt in her report stated that she had traveled more than ninety-seven thousand miles, and had utilized the services of more than two hundred interpreters in forty-seven different languages. The winter of 1891-92, Mrs. Leavitt spent in South America, meeting with many difficulties in establishing the work there; the next winter was passed at Honolulu, in regaining physical strength. In this journey, in which, as she says, she "not only went around the world, but well-nigh all over it," she smoothed the pathway for those that have since followed.

Miss Jessie Ackerman was the second one to go in the interests of this cause. She started in the autumn of 1888, following in the footsteps of Mrs. Leavitt, and in Australia founded and federated the sub-divisions of Australasia in a

ational Women's Christian Temperance Union, and is now ontinuing her round-the-world journey.

In 1891 Miss Mary Allen West was appointed to service in Japan. She arrived in that country in October, 1892, and received a most enthusiastic welcome. Invitations for public work were numerous, which she could not refuse. She held three meetings daily, and sometimes during the last two months of her earthly career, five addresses were given within twenty-four hours. Her time of service in that land was short, but she gave a mighty impetus to the work ; before the year closed she had fallen—"fallen at her post with her face to the foe ; her death renders the soil of Japan forever sacred to all White Ribboners, and the fragrance of her memory gilds that far-distant country with a perpetual charm."

In 1890, Mrs. Elizabeth Wheeler Andrew and Dr. Kate C. Bushnell, the third and fourth round-the-world missionaries, were appointed and set out together. Dr. Bushnell's work had been in the social purity department of the union in the United States for five years, and Mrs. Wheeler for eight years had been on the editorial staff of the *Union Signal.* They were to give particular emphasis to the purity question, and also to make as rapid a survey of the field and work as was possible, considering the demands of each country. They left from the eastern shore early in 1891. Six months were spent in Great Britain, then through Africa. The next winter was spent in India and seven months in Australia ; back to Ceylon, thence to Egypt and Syria for a short time, reaching England in March, 1893. Mrs. Andrews says they traveled eighty-seven thousand miles, crossed the equator four times, took sixteen sea voyages, and delivered six hundred and seventy addresses to an estimated attendance of forty-five thousand people. In all this journeying by sea and by land, no money was supplied them from the home treasury ; all their needs being met by the women devoted to the cause in the countries visited. As a result of all

these years of labor and planning and sacrifice more than forty countries are joined in this band of workers, and many thousands of women and children are standing in the ranks. Mrs. Leavitt's words are: "If there was any doubt as to the feasibility of Miss Willard's grand conception, it must have long since passed away. The white ribbon has belted the world. The noontide prayer never ceases." The World's Christian Temperance Union is an accomplished fact.

Grand work has been done by the British Woman's Temperance Association. "Mother" Stewart, a well-known leader in the crusade, was the human power that set the wheel in motion in England. In June, 1875, Mrs. Margaret D. Parker of Dundee, Scotland, met Mrs. Stewart at a great temperance meeting in Chicago. Mrs. Parker was greatly interested in the movement in America and was eager to invite Mrs. Stewart to her home in Scotland; and, after her return home, began a correspondence which resulted in the visit of "Mother" Stewart to Great Britain in January, 1876. The result of that visit was the formation of the British Woman's Temperance Association. This was completed at Newcastle-on-Tyne, April 21, 1876. Mrs. Margaret D. Parker was its first president. At this meeting several ladies made their entrance into public life whose names have ever since been known and honored. Mrs. Clara Lucas Balfour was made president in 1877, and her successor was Mrs. Margaret Bright Lucas, the beloved sister of John Bright, who held the position until her death, in 1890. Mrs. Lucas's second visit to America was an epoch in the history of woman's work in temperance. Her reception was an enthusiastic one. Miss Impey, who accompanied Mrs. Lucas, describes the scene as follows:—

"While the enthusiasm was at its highest Miss Willard took Mrs. Lucas by the hand, and they stood together before the cheering audience, while handkerchiefs, flags, and banners waved in air,—a living illustration of the union between

England and America, the mother and daughter, in this mighty crusade against strong drink."

Mrs. Margaret Bright Lucas in politics was a Liberal; worked in the interests of that party, because she believed it helped to advance the great reforms for the improvement of the social system. She allowed no opportunity to pass, when making public addresses, without emphasizing the fact that temperance legislation, to be successful, requires the woman's vote. She said, "My principle is that women should work for women until they receive justice. As long as I can work I shall strive to obtain complete equality between women and men before the law." The death of Mrs. Lucas occurred on February 4th, 1890, at the age of seventy-one, after a short but severe illness. In May, 1890, Lady Henry Somerset was elected her successor and still holds that position.

Space will allow mention to be made of but few of the many women whose names have become household words because of their intimate connection with the temperance work.

Isabel, Lady Henry Somerset, president of the British Woman's Temperance Association, and who has in her visits to this country made a favorable impression and gained the lasting respect of the women of America, was born in 1851. She is the eldest daughter of Earl and Countess Somers of Eastnor Castle, Ledbury in Herefordshire, England. Having no brothers, Lady Henry Somerset succeeded to the inheritance of the vast estate of her father. Thus born to an inheritance of wealth and refinement, married in 1872 to Lord Somerset, second son of the Duke of Beaufort, and becoming the mother of a beautiful daughter in 1874, she appeared to be possessed of all that earth can give. In 1885 she became conscious of her duty to her large tenantry. In considering their welfare, she was at the outset confronted with the drink problem. In 1885, at her castle gates in Ledbury she signed the pledge with forty of her tenants. She had large possessions in the East of London, her

tenants numbering nearly one hundred thousand. In the
became interested and was one of the chief supporters of
Hugh Price Hughes in the great work undertaken by him.
offered to receive and did receive into her home some o
destitute from the slums of Soho, and gave fêtes to probabl
thousand poor people at a time. She came into the tempe
work through the influence of Mrs. Hannah Whitall S
Lady Henry is a very pleasant speaker. Her view of th
ation is broad and her ideas are presented in a fresh, ur
neyed way.

The name of Miss Frances E. Willard has been of nec
so connected with the subject under consideration and hei
therein so thoroughly reviewed that were it not for her pc
as president, for seven years, of the World's Woman's
tian Temperance Union, and for sixteen years of the Na
Woman's Christian Temperance Union, further words
be omitted.

A busy woman the history of the years show her tc
been. Her birthplace is Churchville, Monroe county,
state of New York, and the date of her birth, Sept. 28
She says of herself that it was her "good fortune to be l
molded in thought by Oberlin College and the Northw
University," Chicago. From the latter she was graduate
acquired the degree of Master of Arts from Syracuse U
sity. She has been professor of Natural Science at Nortl
ern Female Seminary, Evanston, Illinois; preceptress of
see Wesleyan Seminary, Lima, New York; two years
half were spent in traveling in Europe, Egypt, and Pal
In 1871, she was president of the Woman's College of
western University. Her first connection with the Na
Woman's Christian Temperance Union was as correspo
secretary in 1874. Four years later she was elected pre
of the State Union of Illinois, and since 1879 has been pre
of the National organization, "the largest society ever

d and controlled exclusively by women." As has been stated e is the founder of the World's Woman's Christian Temper- nce Union, and since 1888 has been its honored president. At e last session of this body, in June, 1895, she was re-elected to at position. The National Union is indebted to her for its ry inspiring motto, "For God, and Home, and Native Land." Miss Willard is a very prolific writer, writing continually for perance and religious publications, and has published the fol- ing works, "Nineteen Beautiful Years," "Woman and Tem- ance," "How to Win," "Woman in the Pulpit," "Glimpses Fifty Years, the Autobiography of an American Woman." this latter work fifty thousand copies have been sold.

Hannah Whitall Smith, the author of the well-known work, e Christian's Secret of a Happy Life," is a tried leader in movement. Her Bible readings have given her a world- e fame. She is now superintendent of Bible readings for World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union and one of friends and counselors of Lady Henry Somerset, in the ish Woman's Temperance Association.

Mrs. Judge Thompson of Hillsboro, Ohio, will always be wn in temperance annals as the first crusader. On Decem- 23, 1873, she led forth the first band that went from the rs of the church into the saloons that stood in its shadow. is a woman of the utmost strength of Christian character principle and yet of great mildness.

"Mother" Stewart, of Springfield, Ohio, was in at the birth he crusade and has written a book embodying her memo- of the crusade. Her work in organization has been exten- , and for this she has visited the South, Canada, and Great ain. She went, although eighty years of age, to England une, 1895, to the last session of the World's Woman's Chris- Temperance Union. In history, she will rank among the t famous of the crusaders.

Mrs. Mary Clement Leavitt, whose most signal work was

her trip round the world, which has already been outlined, i New England ancestry and culture, and is a speaker of g power. Her efforts more recently are to advance woman frage and prohibition.

Dr. Kate Bushnell is an evangelist working under the di tion of the National Union. She is a thoroughly educated sician, having been graduated in Chicago, was a medical mis ary in China, and afterwards had a good practice in Den Colorado. In 1886, she began work in the department of "s purity," on which theme she has spoken most accept throughout the United States. She founded the "Ancho for Women" in Chicago and explored the "dens of white s women" in the northern pineries.

Mrs. Caroline Brown Buell has served the National W an's Christian Temperance Union as corresponding secre for nearly fifteen years. She is a true New Englander, of "Mayflower" stock. Her consecration to the temperance is entire and the prime of her womanhood is being spent i service. Her husband was an officer in a Connecticut ment, during the civil war, and she had one brother in service. Her father, Rev. Thomas G. Brown, was its chap two brothers were in the navy. All this was cause sufficie enlist her sympathies for the soldiers, with whom she great favorite. Both in her own and in other states she is invited to address them, and always reaches their hearts.

Mrs. Mary T. Lathrop is another in the brilliant galax women that adds brightness to the National Woman's Chri Temperance Union. She was born in Concord, Jackson cou Michigan, April 25, 1838, and died in Jackson, January 3. In 1864 she was married to Dr. Carnet C. Lathrop, and rem to Jackson. They were devoted members of the Meth Episcopal Church, and when the Woman's Foreign Missio Society was organized, her public work began, and was excellent drill for the career so recently closed. Auxi

ices, district and conference secretaryship, valued branch ppointments,—all these prospered when she led. So when the Woman's Christian Temperance Union came into existence she ame to its first convention a prepared worker, and took rank once as one of the most eloquent advocates of the cause. e was an honored preacher of the Methodist church, and has bored as an evangelist in the leading churches, east and west. er rare gifts of oratory won for her the name of the "Daniel Webster of the Temperance Reform." Every prompting of er great soul was for the uplift of human souls and the betterent of human government.

Mrs. S. S. Fessenden of Boston is a woman of fine education nd strong platform power. She is president of the Massachusetts state organization. Mrs. Katharine Lente Stevenson, the orresponding secretary for the same state, is a graduate of Boston University in the classical and theological courses. She iscourses vigorously on reform subjects.

Mrs. Clara C. Hoffman is perhaps one of the best lecturers he National Union has. Her home is in Kansas City, Missouri, ut she is well known and honored in other states beside her own. She has wonderful adaptability, and can readily suit her liscourse to the audience before her, whether it be the educated r the mission people of the city, students of seminary, college, or university, or the dwellers in remote country districts. She is brainy, witty, original, and has a fluent command of anguage, a heart enthused with her theme, and a wonderful voice, deep, strong, and clear, making her words audible in the argest building or in the open air. When she speaks none can choose but listen.

And we would not forget to name Mrs. Matilda B. Carse of Chicago. She is a born leader and financier, having originated nd carried to a successful issue more great financial undertakngs than any other woman in the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. She was early left a widow with three sons to

support and care for. The youngest of these was killed about six years ago, by a team driven by a tipsy German. This great sorrow prepared Mrs. Carse to dedicate her life to the temperance reform. She is president of the Central Union of Chicago, and the founder of the Woman's Temperance Publishing Association, which has become one of the largest in the West.

Her greatest enterprise was the erection of the Temperance Temple—that sort of a temperance "Pharos." To the building of this she devoted her heart, head, and hand most unweariedly and unstintingly.

Mary Allen West, who for more than thirty years was a prominent figure in educational circles in the state of Illinois, and for a number of years superintendent of public instruction in Knox county, and one of the editors of the *Union Signal*, was at the head of the School of Methods for the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union until sent on her mission to Japan, from which she never returned.

At the head of the Flower Mission of the National Union is Miss Jennie Casseday of Louisville, Kentucky. Though for more than twenty-five years she has been unable to leave her bed, she is one of the happiest, cheeriest spirits, and great things have been accomplished by this fragile little lady on her sick bed. She has founded a training school for nurses in Louisville, and established a summer rest cottage for working girls near the city. Her pathetic little letters dated "Sick-Bed," have set thousands of women at work throughout the land.

Inasmuch as the Empire State has the honor of inaugurating the work of the crusade at Fredonia, Chautauqua county, December 15, 1873, we will take a particular look at some of its founders and of those who are now carrying it on. Chautauqua county has always led in the work; the union at Fredonia being the leading one of the county. This, perhaps, is partly due to the leadership of Mrs. Esther McNeil, who entered the ranks of the crusaders in 1873 and for the past seventeen years

has been the local president of that union. She is now past eighty-two years of age, yet at the conventions performs her part acceptably.

Mrs. Allen Butler, first president of the state union, resides in Syracuse. This city has been her home for more than a half century, during which time she has been identified with very many of the charitable and benevolent institutions of the city as well as those of her own church. During the five years of her presidency, great advancement was made in temperance work due not only to her thorough consecration, but to her marked executive ability and lifelong experience in other public enterprises, all of which she brought to the temperance work.

The president at the present time is Mrs. Mary Towne Burt of New York city. Mrs. Burt has been identified with this cause since 1874. She is gifted with a fine presence, a pleasing address, cultivated manners, and has a power in speech, both public and private. Her ability as a presiding officer has often been complimented by competent judges. She has presided at the organization of a large number of county unions and in all the various enterprises of the state union has displayed marked ability. For fifteen years she has occupied this position, giving to its work the best her life afforded, freely and without price.

Page after page might be filled with the names of the illustrious women and the eminent leaders of this mighty host. The twenty-first anniversary of this organization finds it more vigorous, wise, and enterprising than ever, and without doubt its best work is yet to be accomplished.

PHILANTHROPY.

THE VOICE OF LOVE FOR HUMANITY'S GOOD.

AN entire vocabulary of new words, new thoughts, new ideas, and a totally new mode of life for men, and of new forms of government for peoples were introduced into this world by the coming of Christ into it. Before his coming there was not a hospital for the sick, the injured, or the maimed, not an asylum for the relief of the dumb, the deaf, the blind, or the insane; not a home for the orphan, the poor, the widow, the aged, or the decrepit; not a charitable association for the education or for the relief of the suffering or the poor, in all the world, nor had there ever been such. Nor can such now be found among any people, or in any country, that is unvisited by his name or influence. There were indeed a few great schools and teachers in Egypt and Babylonia, in Persia, in China, India, Greece, and Rome before his time, but they were always for those who could pay for their teaching, and were not for the masses of the people. Egypt had shelters for the sick animal gods it worshiped—but none for sick men. China has had for centuries things that are called foundling asylums, copied from early Nestorian missionaries, but they were and yet are monstrous dens of filth, and for ages they have been for female children only, who are kept and trained for sale as wives, concubines, or prostitutes.

No reformer save Jesus of Nazareth ever taught brotherly kindness toward the criminal, the enemy, the vile, and the degraded, nor did any other except him ever seek to help and save

such. The priest-kings of the ancient empires spent vast sums of money for their many victory feasts, and for their great festivals in honor of their gods, yet none of those countries ever had a home for the many orphans and widows their countless needless wars had made, and in no book of religion save the Bible can there be found such words or thoughts as "long-suffering, gentleness, and meekness," or the multitude of kindred and related thoughts, words, and ideas that are everywhere found in the Bible. Neither Confucius, nor Lao-tze, nor Gautama, nor Zoroaster, nor Socrates, nor Plato, nor Marcus Aurelius, nor Mohammed, ever taught the great duty of philanthropy or brotherly kindness, so that we may safely say that philanthropy was instituted by and is peculiar to Jesus Christ and to him alone.

It was not that there was found no suffering in the world before him,—dreadful suffering has always been. But the ancients regarded it as a signal token of the displeasure of the gods and so viewed it with satisfaction when visited upon their neighbor, or else schooled themselves to be indifferent to it as one of the belongings of this life when it came to themselves. The gods they worshiped were cruel and bloodthirsty always as their priests forever interpreted to them the events of the natural world that the gods governed. Why then should they be moved to pity toward the suffering, since the gods were not pitiful? "The gods love us?" cried a heathen; "why the gods never think of loving." Athens and Rome had shrines for all kinds of gods, both the known and the unknown, but never a shrine to the god of brotherly love. He was indeed an unknown god to them. And so it came to pass that great Rome had forty theaters to amuse her millions with vile shows and bloody combats but not a single almshouse; and, in the very height of her Augustan reign, great numbers of her infants were carried to the Velabrum by their parents and left there for whoever might wish to take them, speculators selling multitudes of

them, for slaves or for prostitutes, or to be maimed for exhibition as beggars, or for mountebanks, of whom the great city had many thousands.

True, the nobility of Rome, who had grown rich by plundering the people, did at various times from 200 to 130 B. C. give grants of grain from the public treasury to the poor, to stop their frequent complaints against the unjust statutes by which they were being robbed. But it was always a political movement and not a philanthropic one. So also was Julius Cæsar's monthly grant of grain and bread to the poor of Rome in 45 B.C. Likewise Trajan, 100 A. D., provided food for the orphans of his soldiers as a war measure only, to placate his army. Seneca 30 A. D., not only voiced the philosophy but the religion of the ancient world when he declared, "The sage pities not," and so he complacently says in defense of the Roman custom of infanticide, "Monstrous children we destroy, and the weak and ill-formed we drown, not in anger but in reason, and to separate the worthless from the sound."

So astonished was the world at the conduct of the early Christians that that master of satire, Lucian, 132 A. D., cannot refrain himself, but jeeringly declares of them, "Their law-giver has persuaded them that they are all brethren." And Minucius Felix, 202 A. D., wonderingly says, "They love one another before they know each other." The primal law of the Christ was exactly opposite to that laid down both by ancient and modern world philosophers whose doctrine is "the survival of the fittest." He taught the revival and survival of the unfittest; making it the duty of the fit to help, to instruct, to care for, and to protect the unfit. And that the strong had their strength given them, not therewith to rob and annihilate the weak, but to bear their infirmities for them, for only thus could the strong be made worthy of their strength, the tree of self-sacrifice being the only one that bears for them and for all abundant, most desirable, and eternal fruits. Not only did he

ike it their duty to save life, but he did far more; he taught it it was their duty to make life worth living; a duty, alas! so constantly ignored by those who profess his name. Is it a biting irony that in the closing hours of this nineteenth tury of Christian (?) civilization, thoughtful men are com-ed to say that as to the multitudes of the children of the r in all our great cities, death is better than life? that to w of the daily life of the poor in our cities is to be appalled he scene of misery in which they yet live?

There was profound political philosophy at the bottom of teaching of the Christ, for no nation can afford a waste nen and women from whatever cause arising. And in bid-g his followers to seek out and save the poor and the perish-he bade them look forward to the future for the complete mplification of his philanthropic axiom, "It is more blessed ive than to receive," and he thus made the world's present gress in charity to be measured by that coming age, whose ry is yet so far ahead of us. And he thus assured progress, in that ideal lies the hope of the world. For the individual, nation, or the race, that has no greater ideals to realize n those it now has reached, no higher standards to attain o, has completed its growth and work, and is now ready lie. It is in persuading men to make a vestibule to heaven deeds of loving-kindness, that the Christ stands unique ong the world's reformers and philanthropists. All save and his have acted on the assumption that evil is inhe-t in the world and so ineradicable, while he taught a ation from sin to the individual, and through the thus ing the individual to save the world. Inasmuch as poverty suffering when not voluntarily assumed or the result of fortunes are the results of ignorance or immorality, he set example and affirmed the duty of his followers, to "teach" n, as well as to reform them; and so Christianity has been inguished (aside from its church edifice) by two great insti-

tutions, its schools and its charities, until what time the state becomes sufficiently Christianized to assume their direction and control. Christianity, therefore, with its doctrine of the solidarity of the human race and the universal brotherhood, to which poverty, ignorance, or crime could be no bar, early took great care of the poor, the infirm, the unfortunate, the persecuted, the traveler, the orphan, and the widow, and eagerly welcomed the pagan to the shelter of its homes and the instruction of its schools.

As its spread throughout the Roman Empire began to be tolerated, its churches gradually acquired property by bequest and gift under the statutes by which the pagan temples held theirs, until at length Constantine the Great, for political reasons, gave to charitable institutions the same right to hold property that was given to the churches. Soon these charities began to be endowed by testament or by the living, with lands, or revenues, or by customs duties of cities or provinces, and people gave their property and themselves to all kinds of charities. This work was taken up by the kings and nobles as they became Christian and alms were given out on stated days at these religious houses and at the doors of the nobility to those who applied. Until the end of the seventeenth century, or even to our time in some Christian countries of Europe, these works of charity were regarded, not as the Christ had taught, as a debt due to humanity, but as a means of saving one's soul. And as the church was the center of this beneficence, kings, nobles, and the common people put into her hands enormous sums, so that the charity of the early Christianity was so perverted that for centuries mendicancy became a profession and idleness was looked upon as being, among religionists, a mark of superior sainthood, and to give alms to those who did not and would not work was considered the highest of virtues. Whether by imitation of a perverted Christianity or otherwise, this mendicancy is now a recognized feature of other forms of

ligion through Asia and Africa, where the workers also have support great swarms of sacred idlers.

The Council of Nice, in 325 A. D., decreed that hospitals hould be built in the cities, orphanages erected, asylums for he aged poor established, and homes for invalid workmen e set up throughout Christendom, and this became the uni-ersal custom in all lands where Christianity was estab-ished. As a result, a large part of the property throughout Europe passed into the hands of the church, its priesthood and its associated charities. The religious wars of the sixteenth century diminished them greatly in France, Germany, the Netherlands, and England. In the latter country, and prior to the Reformation, more than half the property of the kingdom was in the possession of its priesthood. In France at the Revolution more than a third of the landed estates, and much more of the capital was owned by it. So late as 1880 Italy, with less than thirty million inhabitants, had over twenty-two thousand ancient endowed charity associations other than the churches, convents, and monasteries; having an aggregate capital of more than three hundred and seventy-eight million dollars, with a gross annual income of over twenty-seven million dollars, and an expenditure of seventeen and one half million dollars, the expense of administration being 42.29 per cent. of the total receipts; in the province of Sicily 18.01 per cent., and in that of Campania 36.16 per cent., went for directly religious purposes, i.e. support of the churches rather than for these bequeathed benevolences. Among these inherited funds were endowments for distributing clothes, or food, or sums of money to the poor, dowry to poor girls about to be married, houses of rest, of refuge, homes for foundlings, reform schools, houses for protection of recently liberated prisoners, endowments for prison visiting, poorhouses, maternity hospitals, homes for poor widows, for house visiting among the poor, for furnishing wheat and grain to poor peasants for sowing, for seaside hospi-

tals, for scrofulous children, for workhouses for poor out of employment, for transporting sick to and from hospitals, for burying the dead of the poor, and for homes for the blind, for the dumb, and for lunatics. The partial list here given shows the great variety of philanthropic work undertaken not only in Italy but throughout western Europe by the Christianity of the Early and of the Middle Ages, when most of these funds were bestowed. In the Middle Ages leprosy was very prevalent in Europe and the charitable founded many lazar hospitals, western Europe having over nineteen thousand such homes.

Like some of the laws of our time the statutes and customs in vogue in the Middle Ages permitted and encouraged a few to enrich themselves at the expense of the many, the priest and the baron coining and debasing the currency of the people also, and so it came to pass that many a red-handed baron of those days gave at his departure from this world large sums to the poor out of his ill-gotten gains in order to forestall judgment against himself in the world to come. Like some of our day while they lived they were so fearful that the poor would not obey the Master's injunction to "lay up for themselves treasures in Heaven" that they proceeded to rob them of the greater part of their just wages here on earth; forgetting, or else not caring to remember, that the denunciation of the prophet, "Woe unto them that build their houses by robbery and their chambers by wrong," applies as well to those who underpay the peasant, the factory operative, and the servant girl, as it does to the dead Jew of three thousand years ago. Count Tolstoi may put the truth sarcastically, but is it not yet the truth when he says,—"The present position which we, the educated and well-to-do classes, occupy, is that of the Old Man of the Sea riding on the poor man's back; only, unlike the Old Man of the Sea, we are sorry for the poor man, very sorry. And we will do almost anything for the poor man's relief; we will not only supply him with food sufficient for him to keep on his legs, but we will

rovide him with cooling draughts concocted on strictly scien-
fic principles; we will teach and instruct him and point out to
im the beauties of the landscape; we will discourse sweet
usic to him, give him lots of good advice. Yes, we will do
lmost anything for the poor man, anything—but get off his
ack"? His description was written for Russia, but it applies
qually to the most advanced of ancient and of modern nations.

From the earliest ages the monarch and the noble, whether
eathen or Christian, have acted on the principle so bluntly
vowed by that great statesman of Louis XIII. of France, Rich-
lieu, himself a cardinal of the church, when he declared, "The
people ought not to enjoy too great a degree of prosperity, else
they become indolent and inclined to revolt," and so they have
proceeded to take possession both of the people and their prop-
erty. At the breaking out of the French Revolution the king,
the noble, and the priest owned (?) two thirds of all the landed
estates, and far more than that proportion of the other property
of France, on which they paid no tax, and for a hundred years
an almost continuous war was carried on with other countries,
to defray the expense of which, the peasants were so loaded with
enormous taxation that, in Richelieu's days, the historian de-
clares that more than a tenth of the population swarmed the
highways as beggars, the price of food being then more than
double that of two centuries earlier, one of the results of this
policy being, as Chevert declares, "They led our poor peasants to
kill themselves after cutting the throats of their wives and chil-
dren, and furnished examples of mothers who, in the delirium of
hunger, ate their own children, as happened in France in 1639."
Yet this king, called the Just, gained much renown as a philan-
thropist by sending yearly to the peasants by the hand of the
sisters of charity nine hundred and thirty-two thousand bottles
of medicine to be given out at the doors of the convents where
the poor beggars swarmed. A successor, Louis XVI., broke up
the guilds of the workingmen that they had formed to care

for each other, and for their sick and orphans, and to bury their dead, and seized all their property and then compromised with his conscience (!) and made much fame for his benevolence by giving yearly one million nine hundred thousand bottles of medicine to the poor.

In Germany, in Martin Luther's time and after, they carefully regulated the dress of the lower class lest they should become too fine and squander their earnings: and permitted great "trusts" or combines to raise the price of the food to the poor by cornering the market to the enriching of a few like the Welsers, the Hochstetters, the Fuggers, who rose from simple weavers to be able, like the latter, to divide sixty-four millions of florins to his family. The much-lauded reformation of Luther was swallowed up in the awful horrors of the Thirty Years War, whereby more than two thirds of the population of Germany was destroyed, and the entire country beggared. So great was the distress of the poor in Europe at this period, that Elizabeth of England enacted that every parish "should raise, by a parochial tax, a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other ware or stuff to set the poor to work." The ordinance was almost wholly inoperative, but out of it grew the later philanthropic workhouse system of England. Prices of food and of clothing commodities were double that of two hundred years previous and wages one quarter less. This oppression of the poor in England brought about a revolution and, under the Commonwealth, an improvement began. Professor Thorold Rogers, in his great work, "Six Centuries of English Labor," speaking of this period, said: "All kinds of labor obtained a rise through the seventeenth century, but the rise was necessary in order that labor should even live. Wages had been driven down to starvation point, and, as far as we know, or shall ever know, the mass of the people acquiesced in their misery and believed, as taught from thousands of pulpits to believe, that their degradation was providential, and must be

orne with resignation. The patriots of the first half of the cen-
ury and the profligates of the last half were equally indifferent
the misery of the poor, upon whose labors they lived. It is
o wonder that one of those later patriots, Fletcher of Saltoun,
ho was a republican for the rich and well-born, but had no in-
erest for the fortunes of the workman, should have suggested,
s part of the noble edifice of liberty, that the mass of the peo-
le should be doomed to hopeless bondage." White people were
ctually sold as slaves to the West Indies and the American
olonies, while Profesor Rogers tells us that down almost to the
eginning of this present century (1795) the wages of agricul-
ural laborers, judged by the price of food, were less than one
eventh what they were three centuries before.

The religious revival in England under the Wesleys not only
aved the Reformation started under Luther from being a
omplete failure in Europe, but it quickened men's consciences
o that other philanthropic movements began and were success-
fully carried out, such as that of John Howard, a contemporary
of the Wesleys, who, on being made sheriff of Bedfordshire and
witnessing the horrid condition of jails and the great misery of
the prisoners, multitudes of whom were found to be innocent
men who were held by the jailers to extort fees from them (jail-
ers of England and their subordinates then having no salary
but such fees), undertook the great work of prison reform, to
which he gave the best part of his life and all his fortune, vis-
iting every prison in England and many of those throughout
Europe, and setting in operation by his published observations
on prisons one of the most important reforms ever undertaken.
At his death his work was taken up by Elizabeth Fry, who under-
ook for female prisoners the work Howard had sought to do,
nd who brought about the separation of the sexes in prison,
emale supervisors for women, classification, instruction in use-
ul employments, also secular and religious instruction. Other
ontemporaries were William Dillwyn, Joseph Wood, and

Granville Sharp of the Society of Friends who induced the Quakers to abolish slavery among themselves in 1754 (they being the first of Christian sects to do so), and Thomas Clarkson, who, while in college, was appointed to write an essay in Latin on the question, "Is it right to make men slaves against their will?" and on consulting works on slavery was so moved by the atrocities of which he read that he determined to abandon his intention of entering on the priesthood and give himself to the work of abolishing the slave trade, and for ten years he incessantly traveled in search of information and to interview the statesmen of his time, many of whom as Pitt, Grenville, Burke, and Fox seconded his efforts, which were brought to a successful issue March 23, 1807, by the passage of 47 George III. c. 36, to take effect May 1, whereby the slave trade was abolished in the domains of Great Britain. He and his great coadjutor, William Wilberforce, sought to induce the monarchs of Continental Europe to unite in the movement against slavery. After the death of Clarkson, Wilberforce, as member of the House of Commons, was unceasing in his efforts to bring about the emancipation of the slave. The bill, however, was not passed until August, 1833, a month after his death, when slavery ceased to be authorized throughout Great Britain and in her colonies in 1838.

When slavery was abolished in England another philanthropic and far reaching movement for bettering the condition of men was begun by Richard Cobden, a wealthy manufacturer of Manchester, for the repeal of the ancient English Corn Laws, or tariff duties on grain, whereby the price of bread had been increased to the people. When Cobden began his agitation there were 20,936 persons in the city of Leeds alone who were employed in the various manufactories of the city, whose average earnings were under one shilling a week. After a fierce political agitation of seven years the laws were repealed in 1846, under the ministry of Sir Robert Peel. In our own country the

forts of philanthropists were early aroused against slavery, nd, after years of agitation, the importation of African slaves nto the United States was on March 2, 1807, prohibited after anuary 1, 1808. The agitation then concentrated against the ontinuance of slavery as an institution in the United States, he chief pioneers being Benjamin Lundy, Arthur Tappan, William Lloyd Garrison, Elijah P. Lovejoy (the martyr for the ause), Wendell Phillips, Gerrit Smith, Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson, John Brown (the martyr for the cause), and an unnumbered host whose names are with the recording angel. The onflict issued in a civil war, and on January 1, 1863, slavery was abolished by proclamation of the President, Abraham Lincoln.

While much has been done to ameliorate the condition of those whom that foremost philanthropist of the present day, General Booth, in "Darkest England and the Way Out," calls the "submerged tenth," much remains yet to be done if they would be saved from becoming the retributive scourges of a state of society of which they remain the helpless victims. The old time charity of the church relieved its pity for the poor by giving them bread and furnishing them a home; the newer, better charity should concern itself more with the work of teaching them how to earn their own bread and provide their own home. "It is the calm conclusion of many modern philanthropists that any home, however poor, even if it is not entirely clean, any home so long as it is not actually vicious, is a better place for a child to grow up than the most perfectly appointed and well regulated orphan asylum furnished with all the modern improvements." As self-respect is perhaps the very strongest of motives to keep a man in the path of virtue, and as all civilized men instinctively desire a home of their own, capital should be far more generous in the payment of the toilers than it has been or yet is. True, an English mule spinner received, in 1895, double the wages for but two thirds the hours work, that his fellow did in 1820, and

with those wages he could get five times as much flour, bu produced twelve and a half times as much, and at less than seventh the cost to the manufacturer.

And yet, in London, one person in every five dies a p per, and Professor Rogers declares, after careful investiga of records, that in the latter part of the fourteenth cent and the first of the fifteenth century there was not one far in all England as poor as seven millions of her people in great cities now are. While Canon Farrar declares that increase of wealth in England in the past one hundred y exceeds that of all the centuries since it was a nation: that if the wealth-producing classes in Great Britain gave one tenth of their annual income to charity it would amo to six hundred and fifty million dollars a year, and yet le them three hundred and fifty million dollars to store aw that not one in a hundred of the rich give worthily, and their wealth is increasing by leaps and bounds. And sad indictment holds equally good on this side of Atlantic. True, the church, in most of the European st and in this country, is not called on to maintain the more p lic charitable institutions, as the state has now assumed t control and support. And yet, spite of all the wonderfu crease in wealth, both in this country and in England, pov is also steadily increasing. In the year 1891, 761,312 pau were in English institutions and receiving relief, while Lon then had 110,759 children whose parents were too poor to the small school fee, and 63,888 little ones habitually atte school without their breakfast because of poverty, while one person in a thousand in England owns or can obtai acre of his native soil.

The United States has acreage enough yet that her in trious millions may own, but in our great cities we are much better off. Seven per cent. of New York city's po tion own all its territory. We give here a silhouette

are of the richest and most densely populated Christian city and country on the globe, London, England, as drawn by General Booth of the Salvation Army and Canon Farrar. According to their statements, there are in London 51,000 persons in the workhouses, asylums, and hospitals; 33,000 homeless persons; 100,000 persons starving; 222,000 next to starving; 387,000 persons very poor, and 43,000 poor little children hungry in the city schools. The sum of $52,500,000 is given annually in public charity in England, and $35,000,000 in private charity. There are in England 100,000 homeless persons; 190,000 poor people in workhouses (poorhouses); 968,000 poor receiving outdoor relief; 100,000 poor out of work who want it; 10,000 children dying each year by violence or neglect; 200,000 abandoned women; 22,000 juvenile thieves; 155,000 men and women in prisons: 500,000 habitual drunkards; 60,000 drunkards dying each year. The annual consumption of liquors in England amounts to 1,000,000,000 gallons, and the annual expenditure for drink is $700,000,000.

At the end of seventeen centuries of Christianity, this picture is sufficiently dark, Heaven knows. The United States can parallel it in many if not in most respects. What a record for the two richest, greatest Christian nations of the earth! Surely it will require many a noble George Peabody with his millions to alleviate such dire distress. What can philanthropists do? Where several things might be done there is always some one thing that ought to be done first. And both in this country and in England that first thing to do is to suppress the sale of intoxicating beverages. Says Justice Fitzgerald of the English Bench, "The crime of intemperance leads to nineteen twentieths of the crimes in this country," and Sir H. Thompson affirms, "There is no greater cause of evil, moral and physical, to the inhabitants of this country than the use of alcoholic beverages," while Lord Shaftesbury bears witness, "The more I examine and travel over the length and breadth of England, the

more I see the absolute and indispensable necessity for temp ance associations. I am satisfied that unless they existed, should be immersed in such an ocean of immorality, violen and sin as would make this country uninhabitable." And th eminent surgeon, Sir Andrew Clark, noting that seven out eleven persons in the wards of London Hospital owed th disease or accidents to drink, cried, "When I think of all this am disposed to give up everything and to go forth upon a h crusade, preaching to all men, 'Beware of this enemy of t race.'"

Is it alleged that "their own weakness, their own appetit slew them, debased them, ruined them"? True. "But wh asks Canon Farrar, "allured their weakness? who foster their appetites? who kindled or suffered to be kindled arou these poor human moths the cruel flames about which th flutter day by day and night by night until they ha scorched themselves to death?" In vain are the labors of those noble societies, such as the "Sisters of Charity," "T Red Cross," "The King's Daughters," "The Young Peopl Societies," the "Young Men's Associations," or any or all whatever name, so long as this curse is legalized. Let remain and new times, new men, you may indeed have, b ever the same old ills, old crimes, old tears, will meet them.

WOMAN'S PHILANTHROPY.

BRILLIANT EXAMPLES OF SACRIFICE AND GENEROSITY.

"GIVE me, dear Lord, some work to do,
Some field to plow, some harvest rich to reap;
Some mission to fulfill both grand and true—
To feed thy sheep.

"Grant me some soul to lift above the mire,
Some trumpet note to sound most clear and sweet,
I rose, and lo! for what I did aspire—
Lay at my feet."

IN the field of charity, women's work stands as a brilliant example of sacrifice and generosity. Her fitness for this work is emphasized throughout all the old Hebrew writings. According to their idea, woman must possess energy, strength of purpose, and active zeal. She *may* open her mouth in wisdom, but her tongue *must* know the law of kindness. What is this charity, this bright jewel in woman's crown; what is this charity of which the unthinking prattle and which earnest men and women find to grapple with is an herculean task? Everything that can uplift the condition of that great mass of poverty and ignorance which forms the lower and largest stratum of civilized society comes under the definition of charity. In these days, woman, if anything, is an organizer, and emphasizes that fact at meetings, clubs, and congresses, but she does not forget, however great may be her interest in the questions of political equality, temperance, or dress reform, that the greatest of her duties is charity.

It is something noble to even think of "the love of all mankind; benevolence toward the whole human family; universal good will; and be in readiness to do good to all men." These thoughts wrought in deeds are the blossoms of religion, giving out sweet perfume, and adding new beauty to the strength and sturdiness of the great law of love.

Victor Hugo says, "The suicide of the soul is to think evil." Those are psychological truths, which announce that every smallest stroke of vice or virtue leaves its never so little scar; and that nothing we ever do is, in strict literalness, effaced, and nothing we ever think or feel is without its permanent effect for good or evil. The great work of endeavoring to uplift humanity, the work which the Saviour of men came into this world to do, is divine, and the fire of a divine charity filling the hearts of the children of men will fill the earth with a radiance of heavenly glory. "Watchful angels will not wear their faces veiled and shadows will mimic substance no longer."

The present generation is remarkable for the great number of women who have devoted their lives to the betterment of the conditions of mankind, but a study of the life and influence of Hannah More, who lived from 1745 to 1833, will show that but few have exceeded her in works of charity and benevolence. Gifted with a quick and natural intelligence, she became proficient in her studies at a very early age, attracting the attention of the men of genius of that day. At sixteen she began her work as an author. Her essays and her poems indicated fine ability, and obtained for her a considerable income, all of which she devoted to the charitable work in which she was engaged.

She, with her sisters, became greatly interested in the conditions and manners of the poor about them, and established a school for the benefit of the ignorant, in the neighborhood of her home. This, although resisted by the wealthy of the community, proved so signal a success, that others were set up by

er, and received the continued attention of herself and sisters. These effected so great a reformation in their locality that those most bitterly opposed to the attempt were glad to acknowledge its great success. "Cœlebs in Search of a Wife" was the most popular of her writings, and was of an entirely different nature from her usual productions.

The beneficent, unselfish Elizabeth Fry stands out prominently in works for the amelioration of her race. She firmly believed in individual vocation, and that every woman in finding hers, and following it, was fulfilling her mission. She knew and said that not every woman could do as she did, but there was a sphere of usefulness open to every one. The inmates of hospitals and prisons, the multitudes of homeless and neglected children, the great number of her own sex lost in degradation and infamy, the many who had been once in good and happy homes, or had occupied trusted positions in service or business, but through sin were ruined forever,—all these she saw and pitied; saw, and did *not* "pass by on the other side."

Her prison work began with a visit to Newgate in February, 1813. Belonging to the Quakers, she had become a regular minister in the church in 1809, and so considered it part of her mission to look after the unfortunate women in Newgate prison. For thirty years she never failed to seize every opportunity to carry out this philanthropic object. In 1830 she began work in prisons of other lands. The memoirs, by her daughters, tell how she won the fame with which her name is honored; how she conversed with all manner of pitiable people as she traveled over the continent; how she found her way into refuges and prisons; visited dungeons and hospitals of France, Holland, and Germany; everywhere arguing with prison authorities; everywhere bent on the one great errand of mercy to the fallen.

We cannot but believe that the vast improvement in the condition of such places as she strove to better is in a large

measure due to her labors and her influence, and that the change wrought in these later years gives wide ground for hopefulness for the future.

The instinct existing always in civilized humanity, to help the helpless and relieve the suffering, led to the development of a scientific system of trained nursing.

The pioneer of this great humanitarian work was Florence Nightingale, who, though of a wealthy and distinguished family, had so trained herself that when the need came, and also the invitation, from Sidney Herbert of the British Cabinet, Secretary for War, she was ready to accept it and go to the Crimean hospitals.

With Miss Nightingale the talent for nursing was inborn. As a child she loved to attend the sick, and had the true nurse's touch and ready sympathy. As with all daughters of affluence in England, she used part of her leisure in visiting and attending to the wants of the sick and infirm poor; from her desire to mitigate their ills she began seriously to study the art of nursing, and read all that came in her way regarding treatment of disease and management of hospitals and asylums.

Visits to London were improved by visits to such institutions; everywhere she saw the need of better nurses. Dickens's masterly and truthful pictures of "Mrs. Gamp" and her companions indicate the state of things in nursing matters before the modern crusade began: and from them may be judged the great need of reform in the class of nurses as well as in the spirit of their work.

When Florence Nightingale, accompanied by a clergyman and his wife and a corps of thirty-seven nurses, left England, October 24, 1854, for the Crimea, they were followed by the blessings of the nation. Their arrival at Scutari on the fifth of November was not a day too soon. The town was crowded with the sick and wounded, and misery in every form abounded. Soon the wounded from the fields of Balaklava and Inkerman

began to arrive by thousands, until three thousand patients were under her immediate charge. Miss Nightingale "beheld the scene of confusion with a calmness born of a knowledge of what is best to be done, and issued her orders with a quietness and decision that insured obedience." When the first great needs were supplied, she established a laundry and kitchen out of the rough material around her. During the first week of labors, arduous beyond what would have been thought possible for her to endure, when she was known to stand for twenty hours directing the work of men and women, her manner was always unruffled, and a sympathetic word was ever ready for the suffering as she passed them by. A London *Times* correspondent of those days wrote: "She is a ministering angel in these hospitals, and as her slender form glides quietly along each corridor, every poor fellow's face softens with gratitude at the sight of her. When all the medical officers have retired for the night, and silence and darkness have settled down upon those miles of prostrate sick, she may be observed alone, with a little lamp in her hand, making her solitary round."

This is the way in which she won from the sick soldiers the name of "The Lady with the Lamp." Strange as it now seems, these women, on this errand of mercy, were not welcomed by medical or military officers, and it was several weeks before the hospital authorities cordially co-operated with her. These were, however, all finally won over most thoroughly to her side, and the troops idolized her. One soldier said: "She would speak to one and another, and nod and smile to as many more; but she couldn't do it to all, you know; we lay there by hundreds; but we could kiss her shadow as it fell, and lay our heads on the pillow again content." Another said: "Before she came there was such cussin' and swearin'; and after that it was as holy as a church."

She remained at her post all through that winter of 1854-55, through the spring until the middle of May, when she was

attacked with the camp fever. For a number of days her condition was very critical; but she passed the crisis and soon became convalescent. She remained in the Crimea a year and ten months, reaching home on September 8, 1856, in safety, but an invalid for life. A victorious army returning home never received a heartier welcome than she. All England felt that something must be done to indicate the nation's gratitude. Fifty thousand pounds were immediately subscribed as a national testimonial to Florence Nightingale. This, with characteristic unselfishness, she requested should be used to establish an institution in London for the training of nurses. This is called the "Nightingale Home," and is the head center of the nursing profession in England. Victoria, Queen of England, gave her a beautifully formed cross, blazing with diamonds, and bearing on the reverse this inscription: "To Florence Nightingale, as a mark of esteem and gratitude for her devotion toward the Queen's brave soldiers. From Victoria R., 1855." Great as has been the service rendered the suffering sons of men, not to be underestimated is that which she has wrought with her pen. "Notes on Nursing," "Notes on Matters Affecting the Army," a paper entitled "How People may Live and not Die in India," "Maternity Hospitals," "A Letter on the Madras Famine," are some of the emanations from a mind given to research and teaching, and indicate the subjects that have occupied her attention. As recently as October, 1894, the London *Humanitarian* contained an article from her pen on "Village Sanitation in India," which shows that her mind still retains its early vigor and enthusiasm particularly when she writes of disease and death. She is now seventy-five years of age, and resides on one of the best streets in the West End of London.

The *Ladies' Home Journal* gives the following pen portrait of her: "Miss Nightingale is a tall woman, rather stout, with gray hair, and fine open face. Although a great sufferer, she

ot show a trace of it. She has not known what it is to
hout pain for many years. Her features are finely
d, while her hands and feet are very small. Her voice
and musical. She often reads aloud, and sometimes she
a song or a hymn. She is very devout, and an omnivorous
Her room is littered with newspapers, magazines,
g paper, pencils, and letters. She is always cheerful."
example of Florence Nightingale, doubtless, had much
a calling forth the services of American women during
il war. The patriotism and benevolence of the women
United States were aroused when her soldiers were
ed and the hospitals were filled with the sick, and they
ed to offer their assistance. The influence of the name of
ce Nightingale helped to make a way for them and helped
k down prejudice against them. When she conquered
osition of surgeon and sergeant in the Crimea, she was
g easy the path for American women on the banks of the
ac and the Mississippi.

DOROTHEA L. DIX.

name of Dorothea L. Dix will always hold a prominent
in the list of philanthropic women who, actuated by
ic motives, gave their services to their country during the
ar. The official position she attained at that time, com-
with her sincere patriotism and faithful devotion, will
her a place in the nation's remembrance.

s Dix was a native of Worcester, Massachusetts. Left
young to obtain her own means of support, she resorted
t vocation, which has so often proved a salvation to
,—teaching, and opened a select school in Boston for
ladies, which gave her a comfortable support. While
g in Boston, her attention was called to the neglected
ion of the convicts in the state prison at Charlestown.
as much affected by what she heard, and rested not until

she had visited the prison, reports of which she found had been exaggerated and that there was great need of ref With energetic kindliness she gave herself to the work o structing the inmates, and continued to employ herself thus the year 1834. Her health being impaired she gave up her sc and went to Europe, remaining abroad until 1837. On h turn to her native country, she devoted herself to the in gation of the condition of paupers, lunatics, and pris For twenty years she considered this work as the great sion of her life, and in pursuance of it is said "to have v every state of the Union east of the Rocky Mountains, (ining prisons, poor-houses, and lunatic asylums, and en oring to persuade legislatures and influential individu take measures for the relief of these poor and needy Especially was she interested in the insane, and this cl suffering humanity seems more particularly to have d upon her sympathies and labors during the years immedi preceding the breaking out of the Rebellion. In four she visited eighteen state prisons, three hundred county five hundred almshouses, and traveled more than ten thou miles. She it was who warned the president of the Phi phia & Baltimore railroad of the danger threatening Presi elect Lincoln on his way to Washington and thus enable to give the distinguished passenger safety.

When the first regiments went to the rescue of our me capital, Miss Dix soon followed, determined to offer her se to the country. She passed through Baltimore soon afte disgraceful events of April 19, 1861, and arriving in Wash began the nursing of wounded soldiers—victims of the more mob. So she was early in the field.

Confusion reigned in Washington. Leaders were w everywhere. The services of women as nurses were neces but it was just as necessary that some one should decide their qualifications for the work and direct them in it.

The high character of Miss Dix was well known, as well as her ability to fulfill a public trust. Many persons of influence were ready to vouch for her; she had offered her services and was already in Washington.

On the 10th of June, 1861, she received the appointment of superintendent of female nurses, at the hands of Secretary of War Cameron. This appointment gave universal satisfaction.

Her duties were onerous and important,—visiting hospitals, inquiring into the wants of the occupants, adjusting disputes, and, in the performance of her tasks, taking long journeys by water and by land. Her position was, in this country, without precedent, and the entire service being in such a chaotic state, her duties or authority were poorly defined. She had some enemies, and in some cases she failed to command the confidence of the hospital surgeons. These were some of the sources of trials and difficulties with which this woman had to meet and struggle and it seems marvelous that, under these circumstances, such a vast amount of good was accomplished. Over the women she commissioned she had the kindest care and oversight. She established a home for them in Washington, where they could enjoy the rest and quiet so essential after months of arduous labor.

This woman, patriotic and unselfish, regarded her work in the army as an episode, and when all was done returned at once to that which she considered her life work, the amelioration of the condition of the insane. Her biographer well says: "In a less practical age Dorothea Lynde Dix would have been canonized, and her halo-crowned figure placed on the altar pieces of churches to shine like those of Catherine of Siena or Santa Barbara": for, as the founder of vast and enduring institutions of mercy in America and Europe, she has simply no peer in the annals of Protestantism.

EMILY FAITHFULL.

Miss Emily Faithfull, whose death occurred in May, 1895, a the age of sixty, in England, was one of the noblest philanthro pists of our century. The sphere of the opportunities o woman has widened so greatly during the last generation tha it is difficult to understand how contracted it was previousl When Miss Faithfull, in young womanhood, came to reali how many women were in the world who had no way of ea ing their living, she resolved to dedicate herself to the enlar ment of the industrial opportunities of her sex. The fact t she was of an aristocratic family, had been presented at cou and was environed by those who had a horror of social refor caused no wavering in her purpose.

She founded a typographical establishment for the purp of employing women as compositors, many of whom she h self instructed. She named it, by permission of the queen, Victoria Printing Press. In 1862 Queen Victoria expressed l interest in Miss Faithfull's work by appointing her printer a publisher-in-ordinary to her majesty. In May, 1863, Miss Fai full started the *Victoria Magazine*, devoted to the extension remunerative employments for women. She said :—

"It is a crime to make women work for a sixth or a ter part of the wages paid to men for the same labor simply becau they are women. It is an outrage to shut them out of gr departments of industry simply because they are women. they are not wanted as wives, they must live as workers, a the question is what they must do without forfeiting se respect and social position."

The great work of her life was the widening of the sphere woman's employments ; but she was also greatly interested sanitary science and was a popular lecturer on the them Although practical and energetic, yet she was a veritable ge tlewoman, and the fine nobility of her nature won her a mul

tude of personal friends on both sides of the Atlantic. She made three visits to this country, and published a book describing the variety of pursuits which she found carried on here by women.

The whole noble band of women toilers, from shop girl to teacher, artist or writer, have been benefited by the efforts of Miss Faithfull, and all mankind as well.

CLARA H. BARTON.

Another woman of strong intellect and resolute will, possessed of an executive force not often given to woman, and yet ne in whom the graces of tenderness and refined womanhood re most successfully mingled, is Miss Clara Harlowe Barton. She is another of the many women whose latent powers were alled out by the dreadful experiences of the civil war.

She is a native of North Oxford, Worcester county, Massachusetts. Early in life she learned to earn her own bread. She became a thorough housekeeper, received a thorough training at the public school, and learned something of the general rules of business by acting as clerk and bookkeeper for her brother. She began her career as a district school teacher when very young, and continued in this work until, from exposure, her health, particularly her voice, failed. Seeking rest and a milder climate, she went, in 1854, to Washington, where a friend in Congress obtained for her an appointment in the patent office, which she held until 1857. She was first employed as a copyist; then the work of abridging original papers and preparing records for publication was given her. She lost her place during the first year of Mr. Buchanan's administration, on suspicion of entertaining anti-slavery sentiments, and went back to New England.

When the war broke out, the same occurrence that summoned Dorothea L. Dix also called loudly to Miss Clara Barton, who immediately responded. The Sixth Massachusetts Militia

contained many of her friends and acquaintances, whom sh immediately sought out and cared for. Troops gathered ra idly, hospitals were soon filled. These she visited daily, carr ing news to the sick, as well as delicacies and comforts, an finding time to write letters for those who could not writ themselves. Her fame spread, and her work became know Many contributions from the North were sent to her, which sh carefully distributed.

Miss Barton neither sought nor received recognition fro the government; had no rank, position, or duties, and receive no pay or compensation; had no authority over anyone, and wa not subject to any orders. She was free to go or to stay When Washington seemed no longer the place for the philan thropist, after a severe mental conflict over the question "Should she go alone and, unprotected, follow the army t the field?" she reached the conclusion that it was right for he to go amid the tumult of battle and war, and she went. Her was the first volunteer aid that reached Fairfax Station afte the second Bull Run. Our space is too limited to tell of h great work after Antietam, or of the comforts her wagons we able to dispense to our soldiers on that painful march fro Harper's Ferry to Fredericksburg, or of the work she did Falmouth and after the battle of Fredericksburg, or of the tryin days during the long bombardment of Fort Sumter.

After the declaration of peace, Miss Barton organized, at h own expense, a Bureau of Records of missing men of the arm of the United States, at Washington, its object being to discov all possible information concerning the missing, and to comm nicate the same to their friends, and she was thus instrument in sending the comfort of certainty to many families, havi traced out the fate of thirty thousand men. This bureau b came valuable to the government, and daily reference w made to the records in settling accounts with soldiers. In t work for the soldiers she expended her fortune of ten thousa

ollars, for which Congress made an appropriation of fifteen housand dollars to remunerate her, and to enable her to maintain the bureau, which was of such service.

Her health having become greatly impaired, she visited Europe in 1867, and was at Geneva when the Franco-Prussian war opened. She joined the Red Cross Society, and helped to organize the German hospital service, herself nursing sick and wounded soldiers at Strasburg and at Metz. On the capitulation of Strasburg, which rendered twenty thousand people homeless and hungry, she at her own expense provided materials for thirty thousand garments, to be made by women who otherwise would have been without food. On her return to this country in 1873, she inaugurated a movement to secure recognition of the Red Cross Society by the United States government. After some delay, a meeting was held in Washington, in 1882, when President Garfield nominated Miss Barton for president of the American association of the Red Cross, which was then founded, and she was elected.

The constitution of the American society contains an article not found in other Red Cross organizations, "that our society shall have for one of its objects, to aid the suffering in times of great national calamities, such as floods, cyclones, great fires, pestilence, earthquake, local famines, etc." The great fires of Michigan and other parts of the Northwest, the floods in 1882 and 1884, the Texas drought, the Charleston earthquake, the terrible Johnstown disaster, have called forth the services of the Red Cross; services rendered more valuable under the able direction of Miss Barton, who devotes her income to advancing the interests of the society.

The world has always confused philanthropy with charity. Charity is the act of *giving;* philanthropy is the act of *love,*—the act which seeks to do good not only to the individual, but to the whole race to which the individual belongs. Charity gives bread,—philanthropy teaches how to make the bread.

Philanthropy is deeper, broader, and richer than charity. T value of organization in the advancement of any cause is to be questioned, and it has proved of immense value in philanthropic work carried on by both men and women.

For many years the women of our country were conten with private efforts in homes for orphans, in hospitals, and relief societies; but in these days of organized effort more pr tical and business-like methods are required.

Individual women, like those mentioned in the earlier pag of this chapter, have proved themselves possessed of ability administer public charitable trusts; and as these examp multiplied, and as other women exhibited an interest in su work, they have been appointed in a number of states to offici positions which give them a voice in the management of publ institutions for women and children.

Two years ago a committee of the National Conference Charities and Correction, a gathering where for twenty yea women have received equal recognition with men, sent lette of inquiry to all the states and territories about the phila thropic work of women. From the replies the following fac are gained: In six states women serve with men as memb of state boards of charities, having supervision of state cha table institutions; in eleven states women have a semi-offici recognition, being appointed by the legislatures or the cour to visit and report upon certain institutions; in fifteen oth states women are reported as taking a very prominent part the administration of private charities; in eleven states, th administrative functions, both private and public, are report to be very limited.

These returns indicate the probabilities of development; a in future philanthropic movements the division of labor w not be a question of sex, but of ability; and those organi tions in which men and women work side by side will reap greater success.

PHILANTHROPIC WOMEN.

The moral and material effects of woman's work, and its influence for good in the world, were most effectively shown at the Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893. There the first national recognition of her philanthropic labors was made; and to America should be accounted the honor for this opportunity.

The reports of such labors in England were secured largely by the efforts of Baroness Burdette-Coutts and her associates. These set forth the work of a long array of societies and associations, whose labors must inevitably result in great good to those for whom exercised.

In these Queen Victoria is placed foremost as sovereign, and also as representative philanthropist. During the long years of her reign, every effort for good and Christian work has obtained her personal attention and sanction; and when on the completion of her Jubilee the women in the United Kingdom of every class, from the pauper in the workhouse to the highest in the land, poured out their tribute, this event was chronicled and embodied in an enduring material form by the endowment of the Institute for Nurses which her majesty had organized, and to which she devoted the thousands which her countrywomen and subjects had offered."

The various organizations in England that are formed to give aid and assistance to those that need it are very similar to those that have existence in the United States. They sometimes bear a different name, but the object and aim is one and the same. The Working Girls and Women's Club is an organization formed among women and girls in business or domestic service with the design to secure, by co-operation, means of self-improvement, at a small cost, and opportunities for social intercourse.

The Order of Deaconesses is a form of philanthropic service that pertains more closely to church life and work, but it is one that finds a place in more than one denomination, and its mem-

bers, as they go about doing good, serve all who need help
out regard to difference of religious faith or denomination.

It has about it a sort of old-time atmosphere that
strong contrast to the modernism of to-day. Dr. Jane Ban
Robinson says: "When St. Paul said, 'I commend unto
Phœbe, a deacon of the church at Cenchrea,' he had in min
individual filling an office precisely similar to that occupie
the modern church." As an office, only occasional traces
are to be found during the Middle Ages; but in the begin
of this century, in 1836, there was a revival of the order,
mencing at Kaiserswerth, Germany, and now institutions
the training of deaconesses exist in many European count
and many stations throughout the entire world are served
them.

In America the work is fostered by the German Luther
who have the magnificent Mary J. Drexel Home for the tr
ing of its members. The Methodists have deaconess home
Chicago, Cincinnati, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and
troit, and many earnest women are workers therein. This
has the sanction of many men of thought and influence
will undoubtedly take a high place in the future philanthr
work of women in our country.

Homes for Friendless Women and Children, Homes for A
Women, Rescue Missions, Children's Aid Associations,
pitals for Women and Children, Day Nurseries, Indus
Homes, Employment Societies, all these and many more ar
be found in our large towns and cities, all seeking to aid the
fortunate ones of earth. Then there are those of national
world-wide organization, having local, county, state and
tional societies, such as the Woman's Christian Temper
Union, the Young Woman's Christian Association, the K
Daughters, which will be considered in another connecti
this work.

This chapter would be incomplete were no mention mad

College Settlements, which are colonies of educated women, principally students from colleges, who make their homes in crowded city quarters to minister to the needs of the populace. Such are the University Settlements of New York and other cities.

The origin of this theory was in London, and was first put into practice there in Toynbee Hall, in the East End, in 1884, although the beginning was made in 1881, by Arnold Toynbee, in memory of whose work and enthusiasm this building was erected. The warden is assisted by fifteen or twenty men, most of them graduates from Cambridge or Oxford, some of them busy men, others men of leisure and wealth, all giving more or less of their time to the work of making the lives of the East End poor more beautiful and wholesome than they could be without such help. The hall is as beautiful a club-house as one could wish to have anywhere, and the lecture room opposite seems to make the People's Palace prophesied by Kingsley in "Alton Locke," and made almost real in Walter Besant's "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," to rise into solid fact.

The first experiment in this work upon the soil of America was attempted in 1888, when Hull House, calling itself a social settlement, was established in Chicago, and began its work. This, Miss Jane Addams, its superintendent, says, "is an effort to aid in the solution of the social and industrial problems which are engendered by the present conditions of life in a great city"; that "it is an attempt to relieve the over-accumulation at one end of society and the destitution at the other, at the same time, and it assumes that this over-accumulation and destitution is most sorely felt in the things that pertain to social and educational advantage."

Simultaneously with Hull House, the first college settlement proper was started in New York, at No. 95 Rivington street; the College Settlement Association was organized soon after, and began here to put into practical application its benevolent

schemes. Although at its inception it was regarded with picion by the lower class of society, and as visionary by upper, to-day its feasibility is fully recognized by all, an value is acknowledged by those conversant with its worki

The undertaking was quickly organized and systemat by Miss Jean Gurney Fine, now Mrs. Charles Spahr, assi by several young women who offered their services to bec inmates of the Settlement House or to take charge of cla or clubs, or to visit their pupils in their homes. During the years the settlement has existed, its scope has broadened, the house at No. 95 not proving sufficient to accommodate al various enterprises, the one opposite, at No. 96, has been cured for use as a kindergarten and gymnasium.

The present head-worker is Dr. Jane E. Robbins. She her assistants, college-bred young women or otherwise, c from their homes into the tenement house district, and sp weeks or months putting social equality into practice. have proved that simple, healthful living is possible in midst of poor surroundings. The greater part of the wo transacted by means of clubs, and as time passes the cl of these clubs is given more and more into the hands of members themselves. There are boys' clubs and girls' cl clubs for young men, young women, married people, and l folks, some one of them meeting every day of the week, almost hourly. Fifty little children meet at the kinderga house at nine o'clock each morning, where two kind and in gent kindergartners amuse and instruct them. For the c girls there are sewing classes, singing classes, drawing cla in which pleasure is combined with useful work, for, at close of the hour for study, the amusement hour comes v they have gymnastics, play games, and dance.

Among the youngest boys is an Anti-Cigarette Club, v the older ones are formed into a Clean City League. The Alpine and Young Keystones are for still older boys, and

horal Club is for the musical instruction of young men. For women, there is the Home Improvement Club, for whom, once a month, special entertainment is arranged—such as an address by a prominent citizen or author, a reading, from an author's own works as by Kate Douglas Wiggin, or some historical paper creating great interest and enjoyment.

In the summer, a country home is secured not many miles from New York, and to it are sent all the club children and their mothers, in parties, for a stay of two weeks, which proves indeed a most healthful and joyful experience.

Membership in the association is not confined to college bred people, as admission is granted to anyone paying the annual fee of five dollars. Although there are representatives of twenty colleges enrolled, there are very many members non-collegiate, while names of people from the fashionable world increase the list.

Quite a portion of the funds of Rivington street settlement has been used to found the Philadelphia and Boston settlements, both of which are flourishing, working on similar plans to those of the New York, differing only as occasion demands.

The work seems to be in the right direction towards social reform, and is justified not only by its results but by the enjoyment which the residents have in doing it. One says, "I could not give up this work; I could not now live my old life in content away from the people I have learned to know and love here."

The Whittier House in Grand street, Jersey City, is organized somewhat after the same plan; and if one were asked to indicate the ori[illegible] work here being carried on he would [illegible] m and courage of a few [illegible] of a wonderful amount of [illegible] ears ago Miss Cornelia F. [illegible] among the poor people of that [illegible] poor mothers in the

vicinity, listening, as she says, "to stories of sorrow and suffering; helping people to help themselves, by finding work for them; selling at reduced prices clothing which had been given to us; chattel mortgaging, and proving ourselves generally friendly." As the poor people became more interested Miss Bradford began a series of weekly "afternoon teas," to which were bidden the mothers of the neighborhood, who, when they found there was no deep hidden design in these gatherings, gave themselves with pleasure to their enjoyment. At these "teas," the Whittier House workers give lectures and talks to the mothers on home improvement and kindred topics.

The young men and women who work all day long in the Jersey City factories find in this old mansion in Grand street influences that lead them to think and talk of better things; that suggest to them a life broader and more inspiring, and awaken, though slowly, new views and higher ideals.

From these beginnings the work has grown constantly in scope and power, embracing now a free kindergarten, a sewing school, a mothers' club, the beginning of a loan fund for the poor, various University Extension classes for both day and evening, and a number of other departments of work. Whittier House is not a charity, as a slight charge is made for lessons not designated as "free." The appropriateness of the name is evident to all, and the motto of the house is these happy words of Whittier's,-

> "He serves Thee best who loveth most
> His brothers and Thy own."

DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORERS.

HOW THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD WERE FOUND.

BETWEEN the geography of Strabo and the complicated maps of to-day, what a world of difference! Between the Carthaginian Hanno and Lieutenant Peary, what a line of heroes! No names deserve our gratitude more than those of the illustrious men who have devoted their lives to making the world better known.

The first explorer of whom we have written knowledge is Hanno, who was sent by the Senate of Carthage, 500 B. C., to explore the western coast of Africa. The next, in order of time, was Herodotus, who, after thorough exploration, placed the western limit of the inhabited world in Greece, the eastern extremity in India, and the southern in Arabia. A hundred and fifty years later Pytheas, instead of following his predecessors, turned his prow northward, and explored the coasts of France and England and the northern border of Scotland. He sailed still farther north, even as far as "Ultima Thule," beyond which, he said, "no man could go, for there was neither earth, nor air, nor water." Two centuries later Eudoxus made several attempts to circumnavigate Africa, a feat which was only accomplished sixteen hundred years later.

In the early centuries of the Christian era there was little zeal for exploration. The boldest and most skillful sailors were the Scandinavians, who, in the tenth century, discovered and colonized Iceland and Greenland. In the year 1000 A. D., Leif Ericsson, with one ship and a crew of thirty-five men, sailed from Greenland to a place which he called Vinland, because

he found plenty of grapes there. This place was probably on the coast of Massachusetts Bay. The Norsemen made several visits to Vinland and attempted to found a colony there, but soon abandoned it on account of the Indians. They left no trace of their occupation and the world knew as little as before of the existence of a new continent beyond the seas.

Ptolemy's geography was written about 150 A. D. It taught that the earth is round, a fact proved by Aristotle long before. But in the sixth century Cosmas Indicopleustes wrote his "Christian Topography of the Universe," to prove that the world is square and inclosed in an oblong coffer with the other planets. The name of the author means "Cosmographic Traveler in India." He tells us that the earth is a rectangular plane forming the floor of the universe. The heavens rise about the four sides like the four walls of a room and support the vaulted roof where God dwells with the angels. The inhabited lands are in the center of the floor, surrounded on all sides by a great ocean, and off in one corner, beyond the ocean, is the Paradise from which Adam and Eve were expelled. "Such is the doctrine drawn from Holy Scripture," says Cosmas, "and as for those vain blasphemers who pretend that the earth is a round ball, the Lord hath stultified them for their sins until they impudently prate of Antipodes, where trees grow downward and rain falls upward."

The writings of Cosmas fairly represent the common belief during the Middle Ages. The writings of Ptolemy were entirely lost sight of until after the invention of printing. Notwithstanding this general ignorance Europe had been adding, step by step, to her practical knowledge of geography. The Crusades had been a long step. Then the commercial enterprise of Venice and Genoa had given vague and indistinct visions of the Orient. In the thirteenth century, during the reign of Kubla Khan, China was thrown open to the world, for the only time in its history. Marco Polo, having spent twenty-

four years in that country and Japan, wrote the account of his travels, which contained so many curious things that some considered the whole book a romance. Nevertheless, men's minds were fired with his pictures of the fabulous wealth of Cathay and Japan, rivers spanned with marble bridges, temples covered with plates of gold, islands fragrant with spice. There were also the writings of that other incomparable traveler and prince of liars, Sir John Mandeville. These tales drew the eyes of all men toward Asia. Europe stood with her back turned to the Atlantic Ocean. Practically that coast line was the end of the world. The Atlantic was called upon all the maps "the Sea of Darkness."

While Europe stood thus gazing into the east, stretching out her hands for the wealth of the Indies, her view was all at once obstructed. A change of dynasty in China again closed that land to commerce. Then the Turk, the natural enemy of Europe, extended his sway farther and farther, until, by the taking of Constantinople, he shut the door of Asia in her face. The immense traffic which had made the wealth of Venice and Genoa had to be given up, just as they had learned its value. Europe could not submit patiently to this loss. She began to dream of finding some other way to enter Asia, perhaps by sailing around Africa. Many attempts were made in this direction, but when, in 1471, the equator was crossed and the coast of Africa still stretched on indefinitely, men became discouraged. They began to wonder if there might not be some shorter route to the desired port.

The geography of Ptolemy was printed in 1475. Learned men who believed in the rotundity of the earth talked of sailing west to reach the coast of Asia. The only one who was willing to put this theory to the proof was Columbus. His scheme seemed so wild and impracticable that no one would listen to it. He could get no backing from Spain, Portugal, France, or England. It was not until after twenty years of

waiting and pleading that he obtained, through Ferdinand and Isabella, ships and men for his undertaking. In August, 1492, Columbus turned his back upon the known world and set sail in the "Sea of Darkness." After seventy days they came in sight of land, one of the Bahama islands. They found no rich cities there, but Columbus believed it to be a part of Asia. After a second, a third, and a fourth voyage he still held firmly to the belief that he had discovered the shortest route to the Indies. He died in 1506, poor and broken hearted and without knowing that he had discovered a new world.

In the mean time others had followed in his track, the Cabots, father and son, Pinzon, Cabral, and Americus Vespucius. It is only recently that the name of the latter has been rescued from the obloquy which for four centuries has rested upon it. Ten generations of men have agreed in calling Americus a liar and a thief, accusing him of having foisted his name on the new world by false pretenses. We owe to John Fiske a debt of gratitude for having proved beyond a doubt that Americus was neither a liar nor a thief, that he never claimed to have discovered a new world, that he never tried to steal any of the honors from Columbus, and that the name we bear is not a dishonest one. Americus was a skillful navigator and an intrepid explorer. It was his voyages which proved the existence of a continent unknown to civilized man. It was a German professor who named the new country, by printing the name on his map. Americus died without knowing the honor that had been paid to him.

Very little was known, as yet, concerning the extent of the lands discovered. In 1513 Balboa climbed a rugged mountain on the Isthmus of Darien and looked down upon an unknown ocean below. In 1519 Ferdinand Magellan, with five ships and some three hundred men, started from Spain to find a western route to the spice islands of the East. He crossed the Atlantic, discovered the strait of Magellan, and sailed over that other

road and beautiful ocean which was so peaceful that he called t the Pacific. Magellan was slain by the savages in the Philippine Islands before he had completed his task, but he had pointed out the way. What was left of his crew continued the journey. At last, after three years of untold suffering, from sickness, exposure, and starvation, the little handful of survivors reached Spain again, having actually circumnavigated the globe. The voyage had cost over two hundred lives, but it was certainly the most wonderful voyage ever made. "Doubtless the greatest feat of navigation that has ever been performed," says John Fiske, "and nothing can be imagined that would surpass it except a journey to some other planet."

While the Spaniards were discovering new countries and sailing round the globe, the Portuguese had been equally active in the direction of Africa and the East Indies. In 1497 Vasco da Gama had doubled the Cape of Good Hope, a feat which revolutionized the commerce of the world. Within thirty years from that time, the Portuguese had explored the coast of Eastern Africa, Arabia, Persia, India, and had discovered several islands in the Indian Ocean. The love of adventure and the zeal for exploration spread to other countries. It was the spirit of the age. France, England, and Holland had entered the same career. The French discovered Newfoundland and penetrated far into Canada. The "Elizabethan Sea Kings" made many daring voyages to unknown parts of the world. While Spain was busy in the conquest of Mexico and Peru, and in exploring the interior of South America, the English and the Dutch were turning their attention to the North. Their object was the discovery of a Northwest passage. They hoped to find a shorter route to China and to the treasures of the East. Although they failed in their object, these voyages were of the greatest importance in increasing men's knowledge of the Arctic regions. The travels of Frobsher, Davis, Hudson, and Baffin all had important results.

Hudson discovered the Hudson River and on another voyage penetrated into Hudson's Bay, where he was heartlessly abandoned by his men and left to die.

The explorers of the sixteenth century were largely actuated by the love of gain. In seeking for new routes to the Indies, they had visions of great wealth to be obtained by bringing the luxuries of the Orient into European markets. Later they were led to new countries by the hope of finding gold and by the desire for conquest. The explorers of the seventeenth century were governed by different motives. The majority of them were either colonizers or missionaries. They went to the new countries for the sake of founding colonies or in the hope of converting the natives to Christianity. We cannot overestimate the debt owed by science to the missionaries of the seventeenth century. These learned and devoted men were intrepid and untiring explorers. It was a missionary who first ascended the Amazon from its mouth to the city of Quito. Father Marquette, Father Hennepin, and others explored the rivers and lakes of North America. In Africa the missionaries were equally active in extending geographical knowledge. They explored the highlands of Abyssinia; they traversed the deserts from the coast of the Red Sea to the mountains. It was two Jesuit fathers who made the first survey of the Chinese Empire.

The most important ocean voyage of the seventeenth century was that of Tasman, who discovered New Zealand and Van Diemen's Land, now called, with greater justice, Tasmania.

In the eighteenth century, it was not the search for wealth, the desire for conquest, nor missionary zeal that sent men on daring voyages to unknown countries. They were inspired by the love of science for its own sake, by the hope of adding something to the sum of human knowledge. There was a general awakening of scientific inquiry, a desire to know all that could be learned concerning the planet which we inhabit.

The different governments sent out various scientific expeditions, into Africa, into the Pacific Ocean, into the Arctic regions, and around the world. James Bruce, Ledyard, and Mungo Park were sent into the interior of Africa. A party was sent to South America to measure an arc of the meridian. Another party was sent to Lapland for the same purpose. Island after island was discovered in the Pacific Ocean. But the most notable expeditions were those under Captain Cook, whose three voyages formed an era in the history of geographical discovery. He was first sent to observe the transit of Venus at Tahiti. After exploring Tahiti and the Society Group, he surveyed the entire coast of New Zealand, passing through the strait which separates it into two islands. He also surveyed the eastern coast of Australia, and took possession of it in the name of England. The object of the second expedition was to explore the region around the Antarctic Circle and to discover that southern continent which geographers believed must exist to balance the northern. He penetrated farther south than any traveler had gone before, and satisfied himself that no such continent existed. On this voyage he discovered several islands of the New Hebrides and New Caledonia. The voyage had lasted three years and eighteen days. In 1776, Captain Cook was sent in command of a third expedition, the object of which was to find the long sought northern passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific. This time they were to seek it from the Pacific. He therefore took the route by the Cape of Good Hope. The first result of this voyage was the discovery of the Sandwich Islands. He then turned to the north and explored the coast of North America, and fixed the western extremity of America. He surveyed Behring Strait and ventured into the Arctic Sea until stopped by an impenetrable barrier of ice. He then turned to the coast of Asia and discovered Cape North. Returning to the Sandwich Islands he was murdered by the natives at Hawaii. The men who were

under Captain Cook continued his work and made other va able discoveries. But the most important result of his w was the colonization of Australia. When, in 1879, the Fre Geographical Society celebrated the one hundredth anniversa of his death, representatives were present from the Australi Colonies and from Hawaii, where he met his death. C deserves to be remembered as the most illustrious explorer the eighteenth century.

The nineteenth century has been almost as much a centu of discovery as was the sixteenth. What was left for us to in this line? If we look at the maps of the world made at t beginning of the century, we see that the heavy black li which signify Terra Incognita are placed over large tracts South America and Asia, that they cover almost the whole Africa and Australia, as well as the Arctic and Antarc regions. On the maps made in 1900, nearly all these lines w be removed. Man has well-nigh completed his conquest of t globe. The explorations of this century have been mainly the interest of science. Geographical societies have be formed in every civilized country for the purpose of enco aging and assisting explorers. Not only geographers but sci tists in many other fields recognize the value of the work. has aided materially in the study of geology, botany, zoöleg meteorology, and ethnology.

The first task which the century had set for itself was t exploration of the regions of the frozen North. Science hop to solve many questions by this undertaking. Was there passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific? Was there an op polar sea to the north? Was it possible to reach the Nor Pole? The story of Arctic exploration is a story which f romantic adventure, for heroic deeds, for heartrending pathe and for sublime tragedy, surpasses any fiction that has ev been written. There is the case of Sir John Franklin, who began his sailor life at the age of twelve, and at fifteen was

ıg to explore the coast of Australia. In his first attempt ıch the North Pole the ships were caught by the ice floes so badly damaged that they were obliged to return to and. Undismayed, Franklin started again the next year ıe same errand. After facing the terrors of the Arctic ers, after having been brought down to death's door by ›sure, starvation, and despair, the party was rescued, ›st miraculously, at the last moment, and carried back to land. They had been absent three years and eighteen s. Notwithstanding these experiences, Franklin was ready ›rave the same dangers again, and two years later took ımand of another expedition. On this second voyage he lored over a thousand miles of the unknown coast of North erica. For his services to science he was knighted, and ›ived also the degree of D. C. L., from the University of 'ord, and a gold medal from the Paris Geographical Society. 1845, although he was in his seventieth year, Franklin .in took charge of an expedition to discover the Northwest sage. It is now known that they were successful in their rch. The passage was found; but neither Franklin nor one of his party lived to tell the tale. The one hundred l twenty-nine men perished miserably, one after another, in ; land of desolation. Relief expeditions were sent out again l again. The English government expended, first and last, ıe five million dollars in the search for Franklin and his n. The United States spent a quarter of a million for this rpose, while Lady Franklin, his devoted wife, consecrated r life and her fortune to the cause. It was not until 1859, urteen years after Franklin's departure, that definite informa-on was obtained concerning his death. The record was found ıa tin cylinder, in a cairn of stones, at Point Victory, on the ›rthwest coast of King William Land.

It was through the expeditions sent in search of Franklin ıt the true method of extensive Arctic exploration was estab-

lished. The men who were sent to rescue their fellow coun
men devoted themselves to examining as much of the co
line as possible. In this way the modern system of Ar
sledge traveling was discovered, the most efficient means
exploring the polar regions. It is only by wintering at
most northern point and sending out sledge parties in
spring that extensive work can be accomplished.

Franklin is by no means the last of the Arctic heroes. T
names of Captain McClure, Captain McClintock, of Dr. Ka
Dr. Hayes, and Captain Hall deserve equally to be rem
bered. Courage, perseverance, endurance, and unselfishn
were the characteristics of all. In recent years Norw
Sweden, Germany, Holland, and Russia have entered the fi
of Arctic enterprise. The expeditions are too numerous
chronicle. Each year adds something to our knowledge
these mysterious regions.

In 1881 the United States promised to unite with ot
nations in establishing international circumpolar stations
the interests of science. Eleven nations were to make m
netic and meteorological investigations at fourteen differ
points. Congress appropriated twenty-five thousand doll
to establish a signal station at Lady Franklin Bay. The co
mand was given to Lieutenant Greely. The ship "Phob
carried the twenty-five men to the place where they wer
establish their winter quarters, and left them there. At
end of a year a ship was to be sent them with supplies.
the end of the second year another ship would be sent. If th
failed to arrive they were not to remain longer than Septem
1883. They were then to start south with their boats to meet
relief ships. During the first year they discovered Lockw
Island, the highest point man had ever reached. They m
the most remarkable sledge journey on record, planted
stars and stripes four miles nearer the geographical pole t
the flag of any other nation, and added one hundred

r-five miles to the coast of Greenland. When summer they watched eagerly for the ship; but the summer l and no ship appeared. They prepared to spend a second winter without the promised supplies. The next spring made another sledge journey across Grinnell Land, and vered its western coast. All through the second summer strained their eyes in vain for the coming ships. In ist they started southward as directed, in their four boats. eantime, where was the promised relief? A ship had been the first year, but had failed to find them, and by some xcountable blunder only a few provisions had been left at place agreed upon. The rest of the stores had been carried t to St. Johns. The second summer two ships had been . One of them was crushed in the ice and its stores sunk. other carried both crews home again. A letter and a few plies were left at Cape Sabine. Greely and his men knew ning of this when they started southward in the hope of ting the relief ships. They had not gone far when the m yacht was caught by the ice, and they had to take to the lges. Dragging heavy loads they made a slow and painful rney of five hundred miles. In October they found the er and the few supplies which had been left at Cape Sabine. re was nothing to be done but to prepare winter quarters. y built a hut of rock, three feet high, and covered it with whale boat. And here they encountered the "hardships l horrors of an Arctic winter, with scant food, shelter, l clothing, with neither fire, light, nor warmth, and faced launtedly intense cold and bitter frost, disaster, and slow vation, insanity, and death." The horrors of that winter such as to make the lowest circle of Dante's hell seem mild comparison. "It is not the end that affrights anyone," te Greely, "but the road to be traveled to reach that goal. die is easy, very easy; it is only hard to strive, to endure, to t." In January the first death occurred. After that they

dropped off one by one, until only seven starved, emac creatures were left of the twenty-five. In the spring, the snow began to melt and drip through the boat, they lef hut for a tent. In June they lived on their seal-skin gl boots, sleeping-bags, and lichens. On June 22d, all exhausted. Greely tried to read a few words from the pr book, but failed. Hope was abandoned.

In the mean time, three ships had sailed in April from Francisco in search of them. On Sunday, June 22d, the day on which Greely had given up all hope, the relief discovered them. The men of the relief party cried like dren when they beheld the scene in that tent. The surv could scarcely realize that they were saved. Their minds enfeebled as well as their bodies.

"Greely, is this you?" said Colwell, as he crawled int tent and took him by the hand.

"Yes," said Greely in a faint, broken voice, hesitating shuffling with his words; "yes,—seven of us left—here w —dying—like men. Did what I came to do—beat the record." Then he fell back exhausted. The survivors carried on board the vessel, but only six of them lived to home.

Through all these terrible experiences, through the lon perilous journey to Cape Sabine, and through the horr that infernal winter, Greely had preserved the records of valuable scientific observations and these were publish the government after his return.

The terrible experiences of the Greely party did not others from facing the same dangers. Isolation, depriva suffering of every kind, are the lot of the Arctic explor still the work goes on. In 1891 Lieutenant Peary sail Greenland, accompanied by his wife and seven men. It dangerous experiment for a woman to trust herself to an winter, but Mrs. Peary came through it triumphantly.

ge journey of thirteen hundred miles Peary proved that enland is an island whose northern contours lie south of 83d parallel. There are many North Polar cruises now in gress. Three of them especially engage public attention: t of Peary, who is recrossing the inland ice of Greenland: t of Wellman over the ice-clad sea to the north of Spitzgen: that of Nansen across the Siberian ocean. Nansen's rty have carried provisions for five years. They have also a nry which no previous Arctic explorers have ever had.—a amo to furnish light through the long northern winter.

In Asia much has been done during the present century. e region where the three great empires of Russia, Britain, d China approach each other still attracts the attention of plorers. In Tibet, two Russian travelers have succeeded in ching the sacred city of H'Lassa, during the year of 1895. South America the great rivers have been explored, but there still work to do in that line. Another band of courageous en have laid open the secrets of the interior of Australia.

The strangest features of modern exploration are furnished one of the three oldest continents. With Egypt older than reece, and Carthage older than Rome, the newest wonder of odern geography is Africa. One fourth of the dry land of e world and one eleventh of its inhabitants have here mained unknown until the very last decade of the nineteenth ntury. That a continent three times as large as Europe and rly as large as both Americas should thus lie unknown at e very door of modern civilizations seems at first impossible. e causes may be found first in the desert of Sahara, which s alone sufficient to deter from exploration in the early ages. ith the coming of the maritime ages of modern history, it uld seem as though her shores would soon be occupied. the discovery of America prevented that by offering a more antic prize. In later days the deadly climate of the tropcoast kept out Europeans, and made possible the continued

mystery of the dark continent. We now know that the i is a high table-land, with rich soil, abundant rainfal great lakes and rivers. But the rivers which should hav arteries of trade are the real cause of her isolation. In p from the table-lands, falls or rapids obstruct navigatio below these the current has constructed mighty deltas, c with dense tropical forests, and reeking with deadly m These rivers are shallow and treacherous, until the fa reached, beyond which navigation seems impossible. Bo Carthaginians and the Romans carried on trade wit interior, and the Arabs have had a similar knowled the great unknown back country ; but definite knowled modern Europeans does not go back of the fifteenth ce The Portuguese and the Dutch explored the coast and fo trading stations during the fifteenth and sixteenth cen but as late as 1788 the map of Africa varied but little fro of two centuries earlier. It will thus be seen that nea our knowledge has come within the last one hundred Indeed, it is doubtful whether any white man ever visit interior until within the last half of this century.

Livingstone was probably the first European to cr continent, at least the first to leave record of his jo though a great deal of exploration had preceded him in s for the sources of the Niger and the Nile. In 1858 Burto Speke discovered the great central lake of Tanganyik Speke alone discovered Lake Victoria. On a later exp accompanied by Capt. Grant, Speke discovered that Victoria was one of the chief sources of the Nile. In : Samuel Baker discovered Lake Albert, another sourc Nile. Livingstone, between 1849 and the time of his de 1873, crossed Africa a number of times. He discover Victoria Falls of the Zambezi, and was studying the ba Lake Tanganyika at the time of his death. He suspected it was the source of the Congo, but that fact was *not kn*

until later. Cameron showed, in 1873-5, that the outflow of the Tanganyika was toward the west; but it was not until the expedition of Stanley, who was sent out by the New York Herald, 1874-77, that the sources of the Nile and the upper Congo were determined. The final delimitation of the Congo basin was not accomplished until the exploration of Grenfell, 1884-5. The interest awakened in Africa by these discoveries has resulted in enlisting the attention of all the great European powers. The Congress of Berlin formulated treaties by which the greater part of Africa was assigned to the various countries. By this agreement, Great Britain now controls a mass of territory as large as the United States, reaching in an unbroken tract from Egypt to the Cape of Good Hope. The central part of this territory was derived, during 1895, from the Congo Free State, by treaty with the King of Belgium. The English portion is by far the best part of Africa. France has nearly as much in area, but a large part of it is desert. Germany, Portugal, and Italy come next, each with smaller allotments. That Italy, which once conquered the only military power of Africa, should now be the last and the least sharer in its territory, is one of the ironies of fate. All these European States are making rapid progress in developing their African possessions, so that the oldest of the continents promises yet to be the newest, so far as concerns the type of her civilization.

The work of the explorer is nearly finished. But a few corners of the planet are left for his future investigation. It remains for us to possess and develop the heritage he has left us, to pierce its mountains with tunnels, to cross its deserts with railroads, to cut through its isthmuses with canals, to connect its oceans with cables, to carry civilization to its remotest parts; to bring about that brotherhood of man which, when it comes, will be largely due to the heroic labors of the explorers.

WOMAN ON THE PLATFORM.

WHAT SHE HAS DONE IN THE LECTURE FIELD.

WE are ceasing to remark that this is woman's century. The movement of women in affairs has become, comparatively, so free, and we so familiar with the fact, that the change it causes in the conditions of public and social life attracts less and less attention. In the last decade, protests against the innovations have been less frequent than in the previous one. It is too late now for scientists to urge the decay of physical vigor among college-bred women, or for social students to predict that a love of learning will destroy love of humanity and of home. These outcries heard for thirty years have not acted as a check. The complaints and warnings do not keep women out of college, for there were never so many in college as now. Intellectual activities at home are not lessened. Women read the new books and magazines. They are not withheld from practicing a variety of professions and trades. They form the literary clubs and support the lecture system; and these would-be alarmists have not hindered their growth in popularity as teachers or as lecturers. The tide has not in any way been turned.

Woman has become convinced that the "new era" has strengthened her in every particular in which it was predicted that she would be weakened. She has gained in physical force with every step toward intellectuality and spirituality. Her heart is not hardened toward humanity, nor the home despised; for there never was a time when woman did so much disinter-

ed, unselfish work for humanity, with so little weak sentient and pauperizing effect.

Education is spreading the idea that every woman has an nperative duty toward humanity, and that time and opportuity for its fulfillment must be found. Where this conviction inds a lodging place, there are calls for instruction in more cientific methods of cooking, more rational dress, more artistic home decorations, better ideas of the relations between mistress and servant, and in all things of import to a "homemaker." There are demands also from those who would know how best to help the suffering about them, from those who would advance in some special department of intellectual work -art, science, literature, or history; and in response to these lemands there have arisen an army of women who may be and re rightfully styled lecturers.

The statement is made by one well calculated to know hereof she speaks, that "at any time within the last fifteen ears a globe traveler might have met an American woman peaking through an interpreter to audiences in twenty-five languages, scattered over a circuit of fifty thousand miles." In this ame time, thousands of towns in our own land have heard and istened to woman's voice from pulpit and platform. During hese eventful years the establishment of the National Council f Women at Washington has occurred, and at its last session, ebruary, 1895, its platform was crowded with speakers, and he hall with hearers. Within ten years has arisen the Federaion of Women's Clubs; and one has but to glance at the pages f one number of their organ, the *New Cycle*, to be convinced of he variety of discussion as well as the richness of oratory displayed at its biennial sessions, and also at the gatherings of the ifferent state federations.

It is not as a profession, not simply and only to "make a iving," that women have chosen the platform. Each proclaims cause to her all-important, its weight ever increasing and its

needs so borne in upon her that she must speak. They do
address audiences on selfish or sordid topics. The claim can
rightfully be made that their cause is a selfish one. Look
back over the long line of women who have mounted the
trum, beginning with the days of Lucretia Mott, or, earliers
of Anne Hutchinson, we discover that she did not do so, u
touched with the troubles and misfortunes that befall hun
ity ; then she cried out for those whom she would defend,
then for her own protection and advancement.

But who are some of the pioneers in this persistent m
ment of woman toward the lecture platform ? What histo
the early days of this republic omits the name or fails to r
the story of Anne Hutchinson? When the banishment of R
Williams failed to bring peace, but brought strife and di
sion instead ; in those days, when ministers were stern
exacting ; when every shade of popular belief was closely
tinized ; when the slightest departure from orthodox doct
was met with a charge of heresy, and to be a heretic was
come an outcast ; when the clergy felt insecure ; when reli
debates became the order of the day, and every sermon l
pass the ordeal of review and criticism,—this was the
and these were the days of Anne Hutchinson. She came
England in 1636. A woman of genius and possessed o
same newborn spirit of liberty which brought our fathers
"wild New England shore," she desired the privilege of s
ing at the weekly debates, and was refused. The elder
women had no business at these assemblies. This arouse
indignation, and she became the champion of her sex ; d
ing that the ministers who were defrauding women o
gospel were no better than Pharisees. Her great plea w
the full freedom of conscience. The doctrines of William
reaffirmed with more power and eloquence than ever
many inclined to her opinions. But at a meeting of the
in 1637, a decree was proposed, Mrs. Hutchinson and her f

re declared unfit for the society of Christians and banished m Massachusetts; banished, because of her earnest preach-, to the wilderness and eventually to a cruel death.

These circumstances seem to have placed a quietus upon the ıinine portion of this republic. Old-world prejudice, and ; restraint of the voice of woman, have for two hundred ırs hindered our progress in all that is good. However, the ths Anne Hutchinson believed important, have not wanted a ald to proclaim them, for one woman after another has sen, undaunted, to speak the truth as she believed it. Not y in Boston, but everywhere in our land are these words of poet, J. G. Whittier, true :—

"To-day the aisles of the ancient church *
By equal feet are trod;
And the bell that swings in its belfry rings
Freedom to worship God.

"And now, whenever a wrong is done,
It thrills the conscious walls;
The stone from the basement cries aloud,
And the beam from the timber calls.

"There are steeple houses on every hand,
And the pulpits that bless and ban;
And the Lord will not grudge the single church
That is set apart for man.

"For in two commandments are all the law
And the prophets under the sun,
And the first is last, and the last is first,
And the twain are verily one.

"So long as Boston shall Boston be,
And her bay tides rise and fall,
Shall Freedom stand in the Old South Church
And plead for the rights of all!"

* Old South Church, Boston.

Lucretia Mott was one of the women to whom was given a message for the world, and she hesitated not to deliver it. She was born on the island of Nantucket in 1793. Her childhood was spent in active usefulness to her mother. In 1804 the family removed to Boston, where Lucretia enjoyed the privilege of attending the schools of that city. At fourteen she and her sister entered the Friends' Boarding School in Dutchess county, New York. In the second year of her connection with this school she was chosen an assistant, and when she left, the offer of a situation as teacher was made, if she was disposed to remain, and so another year was devoted to that institution. When eighteen years old, she married James Mott of New York, and their home was begun in Philadelphia, where Mr. Wright, her father, had removed his family, and with whom her husband entered into business. Difficulties surrounded them in early years of married life, and Mrs. Mott resumed the charge of a school, and for a year was engaged in teaching.

She says: "My sympathy was early enlisted for the poor slave, by the class-books read in our schools, and the pictures of the slave ship. The ministry of Elias Hicks on the subject of the unrequited labor of slaves, and his example in refusing the products of slave labor, all had their effect in awakening a strong feeling in their behalf. The unequal condition of woman in society also early impressed my mind. While at school, learning that the charge for the education of girls was the same as that for boys, and that when they became teachers women received but half as much as men for their services, the injustice was so apparent that I early resolved to claim for my sex all that an impartial Creator had bestowed."

When but twenty-five years old she became a preacher in the Society of Friends, but says: "The highest evidence of a sound faith being the practical life of the Christian, I have felt a far greater interest in the moral movements of our age than in any theological discussion."

The temperance reform early engaged her attention as well as the oppression of the working classes by existing monopolies, and the low, unfair wages. She held many meetings with them, listened to their appeals for assistance, and in every possible way lent them a helping hand. But the millions of slaves in our land she regarded as the greatest sufferers, and the most oppressed class, and so felt bound to plead their cause, in season and out of season, and, in her own language, "to endeavor to put my soul in their soul's stead, and to aid in every right effort for their emancipation." She made a tour of New England and the Middle States, preaching, and denouncing slavery and intemperance. She helped to organize the American anti-slavery society in 1833, was a delegate to the "world's anti-slavery convention" at London in 1840, and participated in the first women's rights convention at Seneca Falls, N. Y., in 1848.

A fine engraving of Mrs. Mott represents her as small in stature, clothed in the Quaker garb, slightly built, with a large head, high, square forehead, remarkably fine face, regular features, dark hair and eyes. Her sister says: "The striking traits of Lucretia's character are remarkable energy, that defies even time, unswerving conscientiousness, and all those characteristics that are summed up in the few words, love to man and love to God." Her death occurred in 1880.

Of all the women who have spoken from the platform, perhaps not one has aroused enthusiasm and arrested attention as has Anna E. Dickinson. A sketch of her life as given by Elizabeth Cady Stanton presents Anna to us as a cross, sleepless baby, a wayward, willful, intensely earnest, imaginative child, causing teachers and mother much trouble. Finding her impatient of control, the attempt was made to "break her will." It was unsuccessful, and through the triumph of that indomitable will she became the most popular American orator.

It was with her an early determination to be a public speaker. One of her chief youthful pleasures was to get a

company of children about her and tell them stories; if she could fix their attention and move them to laughter or to tears, she was happy. It was her custom to go out alone, in the streets of Philadelphia, her native city, and a favorite resort was the anti-slavery office in Fifth street. Here she would stay for hours to read papers, tracts, and books on the subject of slavery, or to hear people talk of its horrors, until, her heart afire, she would go home, and make abolition speeches to her schoolmates.

Poverty compelled her to leave school at seventeen, but she did not cease studying. Any kind of honorable employment she would undertake, to enable her to obtain money with which to buy books. Her passion for oratory was great, and Mrs. Stanton tells us that "on one occasion she scrubbed a sidewalk for twenty-five cents, to hear Wendell Phillips lecture on 'The Lost Arts.'" The same authority tells us that her first public speech was made one Sunday, when she was only eighteen years of age. She had read a notice of a meeting of the "Association of Progressive Friends," to discuss the "rights and wrongs of woman," and, resolving to go, was there at the appointed hour. Ten minutes were allowed the speakers to present their views, and ladies were particularly invited to speak, as the subject was one of interest to them. In response to this invitation, after several persons had spoken, Anna arose. Her youth, her face, her bright eyes, her musical voice, her subdued and impressive manner, commanded at once the attention of the audience. She spoke twice, and to the point. The next Sunday she spoke again on the same subject. An attempt was made to put her down by a man who tried to depict "woman's true sphere." When he finished, she arose and answered him with eloquence that electrified and amazed her audience. When she came to the end, the man left the meeting, to the amusement of the audience, whose sympathies were with the girl. This occurred in January, 1860. One Sunday

rnoon in April of that same year, she made the first speech hich she had given any previous thought, at a schoolhouse New Jersey. Her subject was "Woman's Work." The ess is described as wonderful, and so impressed the people they would not disperse until she promised to speak again ie evening, when she spoke upon the subject of slavery for first time and with equal effect. The first money she ever ived for giving an address was the collection of several ars taken at this meeting. This was but the beginning of a iant career. All obstacles were not overcome; the path to e was not shorn of all hardship and discouragement, but was well started, and went on until the whole nation stopped sten to the utterances born of her mighty courage, uncon-rable will, brilliant imagination, and religious earnestness. Mary A. Livermore, "the peerless orator," became widely favorably known as one of the busy, active laborers in the ıd field of woman's effort during the civil war. She was ı. Mary Ashton Rice, in Boston, in 1821. In this city, or suburbs, she resided until 1855, when she removed with her band and children to Chicago. Her husband, Rev. D. P. ermore, is a Universalist clergyman, and Mrs. Livermore isted him for some time in editing a Universalist paper in cago.

Her labors with her pen began with the commencement of war. The columns of the paper of which she was the asso-e editor furnished the opportunity desired of addressing patriotic appeals to the community, and her vigorous pen s ever at work. During the whole war, even in the busiest es, not a week passed that she did not furnish somewhere n one to three columns. Her pen was not allowed to re-in idle, and in all its utterances through those eventful rs, the intense loyalty of this gifted woman is most evident. er she was appointed agent of the Sanitary Commission of Northwest, the articles written were designed to give state-

ments of the soldiers' needs, and, by appeals and exhortation to renewed sacrifice and benevolence, keep the public min stimulated to fresh endeavor. The story of the work done b the commission proves how excellently her pen wrought.

The days spent in Washington, the visits to the camps nea Alexandria and to hospitals, her visit to the White House, an her impressions of Abraham Lincoln, the visits to the militar hospitals and posts along the Mississippi, not simply made onc but again and again,—all these furnished a multitude of inc dents and material for her pen.

In these years, too, she appeared as a public speaker. Durin the work of planning for the great Sanitary Fair in 1863, Mr Livermore held a commanding position. A brilliant and earne speaker, her words seemed to sway the throng of attentiv women gathered from all the great Northwest. Her comman ing person added power to her thoughts, which were spoken i a clear, ringing voice and clothed in well selected language.

With all this wealth of material collected during these year with all the experience gained, with the same determined opp sition to wrong, and love for truth and right, possessed of desire to see justice triumphant, we cannot wonder, after tl sad, busy years of the war were ended, at finding her on tl lecture platform. Through all these years she has taken place in the front rank of popular lecturers, upon her expe ences in the civil strife, also upon moral and social question and in the movement to secure suffrage for women.

Freedom and temperance first prompted woman to stil timidity, brave ridicule, and grow strong as opposition gr rank; and now the growing belief that the enfranchisement woman is certain to aid the temperance movement has dev oped a formidable array of female suffrage lecturers. Franc E. Willard, whose unparalleled services are accepted in ever land; "Mother" Wallace, mother of the author of Ben-Hur who at seventy-five years of age spends several months of eac

lecturing, and whose voice, wit, and direct, convincing once heard are never forgotten; Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, ys ready and able to discuss moral, legal, and political ms, are examples which could be increased to scores illus- ng the origin of woman's advance to the lecture field— anthropy. Women are also speaking on other themes.

hose who heard Amelia B. Edwards during her American in 1891, felt a personal loss in her death the year following. who heard her says: "Her rare and voluminous learning, quiet grace and perfect naturalness, her dainty touches of ior, charmed, and impressed one that she well filled her a description of an antiquarian,—one possessing indomitable rage and will, unwearying patience and energy, and an regnable constitution, besides the love of discovering unre- led history."

Jane Meade Welch, who lectures so acceptably on historical jects; Mrs. Sarah S. Teal, who has phases of early colonial for topics; Mrs. C. E. Bishop on physiological questions; s. Lindon W. Bates on sociology; Mrs. May Alden Ward, o gives lectures before clubs and classes on "Prophets of the eteenth Century,"—Carlyle, Emerson, Browning, Ruskin, l others,—and also upon "Old New England"; Mrs. Ellen telle Dietrick on "Life and Its Meanings"; Mrs. Eliza Stowe itchell on "Economic Principles"; Mrs. Erving Winslow on he Drama"; Miss Annie S. Peck on "Ancient and Modern eece," accompanying her lectures with illustrations; Miss ry Proctor, daughter of the late Prof. R. A. Proctor, who tures upon the delightful theme of astronomy; these and ores of other names, on all the varied topics now interesting e minds of men and women, indicate somewhat the position oman to-day occupies as a lecturer. Woman's moral influence as never so needed, and never so heeded as now; and a study f all these questions will give power to shape and color the ture of this nation, its education, home life, and religion.

SUCCESS OF MISSIONS.

POWER OF THE BIBLE IN FOREIGN LANDS.

AN American skeptic traveling through the Dark Co nent said to a Christian African chief, "What ben have the missionaries been to your people?" To whi the chief replied, "Had the missionary not co here before you did we should have made a sumptuous meal you to-day."

Missions have taught humanity to the cannibals of Afri and carried light to the minds and happiness to the souls thousands of men, women, and children of heathen lands.

At the end of twenty-five years of Christian work, travel tell us that it is very difficult to find a cannibal Fijian, a hea hunting Dyak, or a war-loving Maori. In India the "sutte or sacrifice of widows by fire, and the crushing of devot under the wheels of Juggernaut, have lost most of their pow to fascinate. Only in very remote districts and at rare int vals, are the cruel rites still observed.

The grasp of these horrid idolatries is almost relaxed—we almost, but not quite, for a recent traveler tells us that in Tr ancore he was shown an image of the goddess of murder, which offerings were still made. It was of life size, with a f of terrible ferocity. Its teeth were those of a wild boar. tween them was the body of an infant with its head stick out on one side of the mouth, and the feet on the other. Th however, we are glad to learn, are rare exceptions to the pres prevalence of Christian kindness.

Wherever Christianity has gone, it has raised the value of human life above that of the wild beast. A century ago, there was many a tribe in which a human being was worth little to himself, or to his fellow barbarians. But the Kaffir no longer treats his aged mother like a beast of burden, and, when no longer of any service to him, exposes her in the wilderness, to be food for lions. No longer does the native of Zululand feed on carcasses which the lion and the vulture share with him; no longer does he barter his children for cattle. It is only among unchristianized Chinamen that a traveler, when a boat is overset, sees the natives struggling in the water, not to rescue the drowning, but to pick up the pieces of floating wood, which were a part of the cargo. To them a stick is of more value than a man.

The religion of Christ has demonstrated that some savage tribes once very low in the scale of intelligence are capable of intellectual improvement, and even an advanced stage of civilization. Slaves brought from England to Rome in the time of Cicero were so stupid as to be almost useless, and, as it was thought, unable to acquire any new ideas. The advocates of the now-exploded evolution once pronounced the Hottentots as connecting links between the man and the baboon. The late Charles Darwin once regarded the Fijians as belonging to the same class. To try to christianize them was, he said, as foolish as to attempt to teach dumb animals to speak. When, however, in later years, he saw what missionaries had done for these incapables, he confessed that he had been mistaken, and even contributed money for the support of the Christian instruction, which, as he now owned, was better than his own philosophy.

Christian benevolence has, by means of medicine and the application of sanitary laws, saved some tribes from threatened extinction. Many pagan natives are indebted to Christianity for educated physicians nurses, and hospitals. Thousands of

women have lately gone from Christian lands as physi to the miserable inmates of zenanas and huts of heathen always inaccessible to medical men. In this way thou of lives are annually saved, and a vast amount of to prevented.

In some heathen lands, superstitution leads to the des tion of innumerable victims. The African belief that w craft is the cause of all disease is said to destroy more na than war, pestilence, and famine. When any person falls the soothsayer points out the witch that inflicted the dis and thus countless innocent persons were sacrificed to sta progress of an imaginary charm. Not only Africa, but i of the Pacific islands, were formerly cursed with the murd effects of this diabolic delusion. Had missions done no more than put an end to this scourge, they would meri praise of every friend of suffering humanity.

An admirable work has been accomplished by mission the elevation of native women. Think of the degradati women in China, India, Persia, Turkey, and among almo savage tribes. In nearly every heathen nation except J women are raised but little above the condition of slaves. in China, she is subject to the law of the "three obedien whereby she is required to obey not only her father and band, but her eldest son also. Wherever the New Testa goes, it teaches, indeed, wives to obey their husbands exacts from husbands more than this; such love to their as Christ manifested for the church when he died (Eph. v: 25). Who can contemplate without tears of jo emancipation of heathen women, especially when he within the field of his survey the ten thousands of Chr women who are denying themselves many of the luxur life, in order to be enabled to contribute to the advanceme their heathen sisters? Yes, and not a few of them, as tea and physicians, devoting their lives to this angelic cause.

The substitution of Christian morality for the vices and mes which once desolated heathen lands is of incalculable lue. Not long ago, murder, lust, piracy, and robbery pre-iled in hundreds of tribes that now practice the Ten Com-ndments. Polygamy was regarded as honorable, and neigh-ring tribes knew no higher employment than that of tortur-g and killing one another. Christian ethics, by elevating the nscience, and elevating the objects of life and the motives r their attainment, has gathered these homeless hordes into aceful villages, where justice and mercy, order, and all the mestic charities, reign and rejoice.

Along with the missionary have gone to pagan lands many the useful arts. He has encouraged the opening of indus-ial schools. This influence leads the converted natives to uild good houses, and to furnish them with kerosene lamps, wing machines, and other implements of civilization. As the nverts multiply, neatness and order take the place of dirt and nfusion, while there is a growing decency in dress and man-ers. In cases not a few, missionaries themselves have con-ibuted to pagans, inventions of general utility and productive f public comfort. Thus the topgig drawn by a man, the *inrikisha* of Japan, was invented by an American missionary. is now in general use in the native cities, and is manufac-ired and exported in great numbers to the encouragement of ibor and commerce. Before the vehicle was contrived, the assengers rode in a swing suspended from a beam, supported y two men, one at each end. During the present year, the postle to the Telugus, Rev. Mr. Clow, who was formerly a civil ngineer, has caused to be commenced the extension of the east oast railroad through his mission districts. This extension, iree hundred miles long, completes a direct line of one thou-and miles in length, between Calcutta and Madras.

No small benefit has been conferred on the savage tribes of ie world by giving them a written language and a printed

literature. We who have always enjoyed these advant can hardly estimate the value to tribes that had always l without an alphabet. In 1819 William Ellis assembled chiefs of Tahiti, to see the first sheets of the Bible issue f the printing press he had just imported. When he lifted the first printed page, the people raised a general shou astonishment and joy.

The reflex advantages of missions are also worthy of not We may here properly mention some of their temporal bene They have given us a true view of the character of man w left without the influence of civilization. Such a view enal us to guard against the romantic tendency of youthful mir to overvalue the charms of "Natural Society." We are convinced that our civilization did not originate, as many sl ties claim, in India and China—nations that in compari with Palestine, Egypt, and Babylonia, are "modern antiqu Missions have likewise returned to Christian nations la contributions to geography, geology, natural history, and nology; nor should we overlook the advantages of being re known and understood by heathen tribes. The residence missionary among them, engaged in daily acts of kindness self-denial, teaches them that all strangers are not their nat enemies, and that all except the lowest class in every civil land take a deep interest in their temporal welfare. A nat good will thus created is of incalculable value to colonie Europeans, to shipwrecked mariners, travelers, and explor

The commerce and manufactures of Christian natives h been largely promoted by missionaries. Thus, while the isla of the Pacific were in a barbarous state, it was impossible exchange commodities with them, or even to obtain necess supplies of provisions, and shipwrecked Europeans were danger of being tortured, killed, and devoured.

One of the most valuable returns made to those who take deep and active interest in foreign missions has been the awa

; and brilliant manifestation of European and American t. It is a trite remark that genius owes its fame to favor- opportunities. Missions have opened doors to the career me of our greatest linguists and men of science. What have done as inspirers of orators and poets is well known elligent readers. Where among the specimens of secular ence can we find anything that for fervor and pathos ompare with the missionary addresses of Alexander Duff, r lucidity, largeness, and sublimity of thought, can be hed with Francis Wayland's discourse on "The Moral ty of the Missionary Enterprise"? Indeed, an octavo vol- of missionary sermons little inferior to these might be compiled. And where is there a religious treatise that is llow of John Harris's "Great Commission"? It is only ed by Wm. R. Williams's introduction to the American n of the same volume. A late Greek professor was, he is, in the habit of reading that introduction at least once r. Nor will it be easy to discover in all hymnology any d song superior to those which have been created by onary enthusiasm. For example, what can surpass osole's "Arm of the Lord, Awake, Awake," or Heber's m Greenland's Icy Mountains," or S. F. Smith's "The ing Light is Breaking"?

ese are some of the temporal advantages of Christian ons. They are of practical interest alike to the man of ce and to the unlearned "factory hand." They teach the er that the converted individual is a necessary factor in logy and political science. They teach the latter that a honor is conferred on the humblest toiler, whether at home broad, who is permitted to share in these world-wide vements and triumphs.

et us now glance at some attractive pages in the history of ions.

he first missionaries were Jews. Hebrew captives, carried

away from time to time into Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Scythia, took with them their knowledge of God, and their for the divine law. The navy of Solomon engaged in the India trade probably conveyed many Jewish merchants t cient Hindustan, Japan, and China. The commerce of I and Babylonia likewise carried Hebrew traders and colon the shores and islands of the Indian and Pacific oceans, a all enthusiastic teachers of their religion. At one tin majority of the inhabitants of the city of Rome were These went to the remotest limits of the empire along th of invasion and traffic. The Phœnicians at the beginn the first century were zealous missionaries. They com land and sea to make one proselyte and, according to th mony of Christ, their dearly bought convert was twice as themselves. The fall of Jerusalem and the final disp of the Jews also served to diffuse revealed religion to th distant parts of the then known world.

The next great missionary movement was that of pri Christians. The story of the early planting of Christian the Apostles, so familiar to all readers of the Acts of the tles, need not here be repeated. Whether St. Paul went as Britain, or St. James preached in Spain, or St. Thor India, depends on doubtful traditions.

The third impulse to Christian missions was given Greek church. Until long after the death of the Apostl church of Rome, like that of Antioch, Corinth, and Alexa possessed the Scriptures only in the Greek language, a first hymns were in Greek. The conversion of Const and the establishment of his capital at Constantinople s to diffuse the doctrines and rites of Greek Christi Gregory the Illuminator went to Armenia and organized churches there. Chrysostom founded a school at Constant for the education of missionaries who were to labor amo Goths. The Nestorians, having been condemned by the

as heretics and expelled from Edessa in 489, went and
d in Persia, India, and China. Constantine and his
Helena, being natives of Britain, took a deep interest in
ches of that island. Three British bishops were present
ouncil of Arles in 314. The Greek emperor and his
built many houses of worship in the Byzantine style,
t splendid of which were the churches of Constantinople,
m, and Bethlehem.

and Methodius carried the gospel to the Bulgarians.
atest of the mission fields of the Greek church was Rus-
noteworthy event was the conversion of King Vladimir,
as baptized at Constantinople in 988. He was first
d to "New Rome" by accounts brought by his ambas-
f the magnificence of the worship in St. Sophia. On his
o Kieff, his capital, he caused the image of the god of
to be beaten with clubs and cast into the river. On
wing day he commanded all the inhabitants of Kieff to
e river and be baptized. Russia is the glory of the
s of the Greek church. The empire occupies about one
the terrene surface of the globe. The Greek church, it
now contains in all 64,000,000 members.

work of missions in the Latin or Roman church first
most clearly about the year 440, when St. Patrick com-
preaching in Ireland. Opinions are divided on the
whether he received his ordination at Rome. Be this
ay, there are few who doubt that he was a very active
cessful field preacher. To the exploits of the Latin
belongs the conversion of Clovis, king of the Franks.
six thousand of his warriors were baptized by Remi-
chbishop of Rheims. While hearing a sermon on the
ion of Christ, the king exclaimed, "Had I and my faith-
aks been there, we would have taken vengeance on the

gory I. stands foremost among the missionary popes.

He sent Augustine, a Roman abbot, to convert the Ang Saxons. In the year 600 England, Ireland, and Scotland l already received the knowledge of Christianity. St. Pat had preached in Ireland a hundred and fifty years before. lumba had from his headquarters on the island of Iona g forth to convert the northern Picts, but at the time of Au tine's arrival, the Saxons, being fierce heathen, had drive mass of British Christians to the mountains of Cornwall Wales. A large community of them, including seven pa however, remained in retreat at Bangor. These, being in whether they should conform to the rites of Rome and s to Augustine as metropolitan, consulted a Christian hermit replied, "If you find him meek and humble, receive him; f yoke which he offers is the yoke of Christ, if he is willi bear it himself." On meeting the abbot, he behaved pro not rising to receive them, but sitting in his chair. They fore refused to entertain his proposals. Hence his jurisd was limited to the Anglo-Saxon section of the island.

Shortly afterwards, Edwin, king of Northumbria, aban idolatry, but, before accepting the religion of Christ, call gether his wise men to decide between the two religions this council, one of his chiefs thus addressed him, "The p life of man on earth, O king, seems to me, in comparis that time which is unknown to us, like the swift flight sparrow through a room where you sit at supper in w The sparrow flies in at one door and immediately out other, and while he is within is safe from the wintry stor he soon passes out of your sight into the darkness from he had come. So this life of man appears for a short spac of what went before or what is to follow we are totally rant. If therefore this new doctrine contains something certain, it seems worthy to be followed."

From the seventh century to the fourteenth, it came considered proper for Christian powers to coerce into con

r such pagan tribes as refused to accept the invitations of the issionary. Thus Charlemagne used force and arms to induce e Saxons to conformity, and to compel them to be baptized. eavy penalties were inflicted upon those who returned to the igion of their ancestors. A similar war was waged in the rteenth century for fifty-three years against the Livonians l Prussians. It ended in the partial subjection of these es. Those who still refused to submit to the Latin church e made slaves to their conquerors. This long war was waged wo orders of knighthood, "The Teutonic Knights" and "The er of the Sword."

Roman Catholic missions were greatly promoted by the two t mendicant orders, the Dominican and the Franciscan, the ner constituted in 1216 and the latter in 1223. At first the nbers of both were much employed in teaching nominal nolics what they should believe, and exhorting them to a er observance of the rites of the Latin church.

The Dominicans, while employing the Inquisition in Europe estroy heretics, depended on preaching in their attempts to vert the natives of Africa, and the savages of America. e friars of this order commenced a mission on the Congo in year 1491. Soon after the discovery of the New World, they menced their labors in the Spanish settlements, where their t distinguished missionary, Las Casas, protected the Indian verts from the system of slavery to which the natives were ect. In his zeal for the freedom of the converted natives, vas instrumental in the introduction of negro slavery into American colonies—a great error he afterwards saw and ented. In England the monks of this order confined their tions to the great cities, particularly to London, a certain of which, "Black Friars," still bears their name.

The Franciscans, however, were the most successful of all monastic orders. Cortez caused twelve friars of this order e sent to Mexico in 1524. Chiefly through their labors, most

of the Mexican tribes were, in the course of twenty years, either persuaded or compelled into conformity to the Spanish religion. They transformed the palace of Montezuma into a vast monastery, which became the headquarters of the order in Mexico. They also preached in many parts of Brazil. One of the rivers of that region, six hundred miles long, is named San Francisco. Their first successful mission within the territory of the United States was planted at St. Augustine in Florida, in 1573. They labored in Texas from 1717 to 1833. San Francisco became a mission station of the order in 1777. There were eighteen of these stations on the California coast. Archbishop Whately and many others have considered St. Francis a madman, and yet almost every part of the world has felt the influence of that madness. The great metropolis of the Pacific coast bears his name, and few could wish a more magnificent monument.

"The Society of Jesus" (now called an order by their own writers) has received much eloquent praise for their zeal and self-denial in the advancement of missions. Francis Xavier, one of the first disciples of Loyola, the pioneer missionary to Southern India and Japan, has been eulogized by writer and orator of almost every sect. He preached at Goa, Travancore, Malacca, the Moluccas, and other islands of the eastern archipelago. Few missionaries have ever made a larger number of reputed converts to the Roman Catholic religion. He had long desired to preach in China, but, on his way to that land, he rested from his labors on the island of San Chan, in 1552. Robert Nobili in India, and Matthew Ricci in China, brought discredit on their enthusiasm by adopting the costume and some of the observances of pagan priests and magistrates. Their colony among the Indians of Paraguay, and their mission at Goa, after seasons of apparent success, met with sad reverses, and final extinction. Their labors among the Indians of Canada and other parts of North America are recorded by Francis Parkman. Brébeuf, Daniel, Lalemont, and Garnier are numbered

among the Jesuit martyrs in Canada. They also conducted a mission in Illinois. One or more of the society attended the explorers of the great western wilderness. Father Marquette accompanied the explorer Joliet on his voyage down the unknown waters of the Mississippi. Geronimo Xavier (a relative of Francis) was sent to convert the Mogul emperor of Akbar. Their most eloquent preacher, perhaps, was the Portuguese Jesuit, Antonio Vieyra. He labored for a season about the year 1653, at Maranham in Brazil.

The great central source of the Catholic missionary work is the College of the Propaganda of Rome, where young men of many nations are prepared for warfare against heathendom. The leading missionary association is the "Society for the Propagation of the Faith," founded at Lyons in France in 1822. Its annual income to-day is about $1,000,000. Their most permanent work seems to have been done in southern Hindustan.

The Presidency of Madras in 1883 contained 397,071 Catholics, while the Protestants numbered only 93,228. Catholic writers point with pride to the conversion of the natives of the Philippine Islands. Our space does not allow us to give more than this passing glance at this great group of far away isles where, since the days of Philip VII. of Spain, Catholic priests have been permitted to do their work without any annoyance from Protestant "missionaries."

Modern Protestant missions owe their existence to the relations of the English colonies in New England to the savages among whom they were planted. Some of the charters granted by the British government to the first settlers contain passages expressive of a deep concern for the salvation of the native tribes and of the expectation that the settlers would use their best endeavors for that object. These Indians were spoken of as heathen, and not a little confusion has resulted from the supposition that when Nott, Mills, and Rice wrote about their

desire to preach the gospel to the heathen, they always inten the heathen of Asia and Africa.

The first of the British colonists to devote himself to work of converting the savages of New England was R Williams. As early as 1634 he had mastered their langu lodging with the red men in their filthy, smoky holes to their tongue. This was fifteen years before the "Societ the Propagation of the Gospel in New England" was e lished in London,—the society which supported John Elio pastor of the colonial church in Roxbury, in his exertio convert the Indians of Massachusetts. Three years befor organization of the society mentioned above, Mr. Williams lished in London his "Key to the Languages of America." book informs us that he had "preached many hundre times to great numbers of the natives from one end c country to the other." But as he was not employed b propagation society, and did not make any reports of his l to its officials, his toils, sacrifices, and successes as missi were never fully published in England. As all our histo missions are based more or less on the records of the missi societies, it was natural that the long and arduous lab Roger Williams should escape general notice and recogn It is a fact, however, that his missionary services were g tously rendered to the aborigines during more than fifty The independent and disconnected missionary must in g be content with the reflection of Job, that his record is on A recent work on missions in two volumes octavo hur mentions Roger Williams as follows: "Missionary worl done among the Narragansetts by a Mr. Williams of dence."

But when John Eliot followed Roger Williams at a dis of some thirteen years and commenced work among the In of eastern Massachusetts, he had the brotherly co-operat Mr. Williams, who speaks of him as his "ancient and

'iend." Mr. Eliot did much for the conversion and religious aining of the savages of the colony. His exertions resulted fourteen settlements of "Praying Indians," and the ordina- n of twenty-four of his converts as preachers to the natives. ese operations, and especially his translation of the Bible) an aboriginal language, caused him to be known in Eng- d as the "Apostle to the Indians." His difficulties as a ıslator were many. It took a whole line of his version to ce clear, to the proud warriors of the West, the idea of eling.

American Protestants of a missionary spirit for two centu- found a large and inviting field among the Indian tribes. ong the most distinguished laborers in the wilderness were 'id Brainerd in New Jersey, and some of the Moravians, as ıch in New York and Pennsylvania. Whitman in later rs was martyred while preaching among the Indians of Ore- . In 1801 a society was organized in Williams College, the ect of which was to effect in the persons of its members, a sion or missions to the heathen. In no long time the society ; transferred to Andover Theological Seminary, and en- ;ed by additions of members from other colleges. Some of se students were at first inclined to devote themselves to the then of America, but in the most of them there was awak- d an interest in foreign missions by reading Buchanan's ar in the East," the letters of Carey and Ward, as well as by ring the speeches of British missionaries sojourning in Bos- , while waiting for passage to India in American vessels, the ıt India Company having refused to allow their ships to carry senting ministers to Hindustan. Through the influence of lson, Nott, Mills, and Newell, the American Board of Com- sioners for Foreign Missions was founded in 1810. The first r missionaries sailed for Calcutta in 1812, but they were ed by the East India Company to take refuge, two in Bom- , one in Burmah, and one in Ceylon. Mrs. Harris Newell,

the first female martyr of this mission, died on the Isle of France, November, 1812. Among the missions of this Board is that to the Mahrattas, founded in 1815. The first convert was made in 1819, a Mahometan of Bombay. Other missions were at Ceylon, Madeira, Madras, and Arcot. Besides these missions in India, the Board founded others in Oriental lands; in Palestine and Syria, Armenia and Turkey, Assyria, Nestoria, Greece and Bulgaria, in Africa, China, Japan, the islands of the Pacific, South America, Mexico, Italy, Spain, and Austria. They have also supported missionaries among fifteen tribes of Indians. The receipts of the Board in 1811 were $999.52; in 1894, $705,132.70; in 1892, a more prosperous year, the receipts were $840,804.72. Their mission in the Sandwich Islands has won the praises of all good men. In the year of 1819 a youthful native of the Sandwich Islands was seen sitting on the steps of one of the edifices of Yale College weeping because he had no one to give him instruction. The interest which the tears of Obookich excited, led the American Board to establish the Hawaiian mission. These islands were known to be filled with the habitations of cruelty, cannibalism, polygamy, witchcraft, and the taboo prevailed among most of the tribes. The missionaries reached the islands in 1820 and found to their astonishment that a civil war had preceded them, in which the idols and temples had been destroyed. The tribes were now ready for the new religion. During the years 1839, 1840, and 1841 more than twenty thousand souls were added to the number of converts. In a few months of the years 1860 and 1861, nine hundred were added to the native churches. In 1870 a jubilee was held and these islands were declared fully evangelized. They had organized a society for the conversion of the Micronesian and Marquesas islands. In this domestic missionary enterprise they are still assisted by the American Board. They also conduct two special missions,—one to the Japanese and one to the Chinese immigrants. Two missionary vessels plow

· these isles, "The Morning Star" and the "Hiram Bing-

: president of Hawaii, S. B. Dole, Esq., is the son of naries who went to Honolulu in 1840 from Maine. The :s wrought in these islands by Christianity are wonder- 'he contrast between what they were seventy-five years ıd what they are to-day, seems the effect of some en- nent.

: Baptist Missionary Society, whose headquarters are in n, was founded in May, 1792. Carey and his wife were ıt missionaries to sail for India. They were accompanied Thomas, who was the first medical missionary, and who aged Carey to embark at a time when he was inclined to ne, if not abandon, the voyage. Carey, Marshman, and did a great work at Serampore. These men, gifted with rdinary powers as linguists, established a printing house, ɜ they issued parts of the Scriptures in almost all the dia- f India. Mr. Marshman was the first to translate and he entire Bible into Chinese, and afterwards assisted in g, at Serampore, Morrison's Chinese version of the Scrip- To-day this society has flourishing missions planted in all :at towns of Hindustan, and in the British West Indian s. They have planted many churches in the Bahamas. their chapels on the island of San Salvador is in sight of ace where Columbus first landed in American waters. :arlier labors were greatly hindered by the opposition of ıst India Company, members of Parliament, brilliant ers, and the leading wits of London society. The heart founder of this mission, William Carey, was first enlisted ign missions while reading "Cook's Voyages." On the ıf the shop where he worked as a shoemaker he hung a ap of the world made of sheets of paper pasted together. s he placed such religious and political statistics as he in the course of his reading. Amidst the intervals of

hand work at his trade, he had already learned Latin, Greek, French, Dutch, and Hebrew. During three years before the missionary society was formed, he revolved the subject of missions, and then successfully urged his views upon Fuller, Ryland, and other leading Baptist pastors of the Nottingham Association.

The Serampore missionaries, after some twenty years of labor and trials, were surprised by visits from some young missionaries just arrived from America. These missionaries were Mr. and Mrs. Judson and Mr. Rice, who, having been sent to the East by the American Board, had, during the voyage and after their arrival in Calcutta, reviewed their studies on the subject of baptism. They now declared that they had come to hold the Baptist view of this sacrament, and requested to be baptized accordingly. After primitive baptism, as they considered it, they found themselves separated from the American Board that had sent them to India. Mr. and Mrs. Judson resolved to remain and labor in some foreign field, while Mr. Rice was to return to America and rally the Baptists to their assistance, hence the origin of the American Baptist Missionary Union. Mr. Rice founded what is now Columbian University at Washington, D. C. He intended it as a school for the education of missionaries. Mr. and Mrs. Judson, through the untiring zeal of Mr. Rice, united the American Baptists in advancing the cause of foreign missions. Their retirement from the American Board was at first disheartening to its founders and patrons, but in later years when the Baptist pioneers had proved themselves worthy of all honor, through their heroic deeds and sacrifices, the Congregationalists could take pleasure in the reflection that it was in their own familiar churches and schools that these young adventurers had formed that intellectual and moral character which had enabled them to do and dare so much for the conversion of the Burmans.

The missions of the American Baptists commenced in 1814

connection with the Triennial Convention. When this rided on the question of slavery, the northern section of the nomination formed the "Missionary Union." The first sucss of their mission was achieved by Mr. and Mrs. Judson in rmah. Mr. Judson translated the Bible into the Burman—a ble which is now the commonly received version throughout at nation. This society has conducted missions in Africa, d among the Karens: also in Assam, Aracan, Siam, China, d Japan, in France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Rus-. Their missions among the Telugus have an instructive story. Dr. Jewett and others labored among this people with all success for many years, but in 1878 they were visited ith a great awakening. Mr. J. E. Clough, who went out to dia in 1865, after laboring thirteen years, began to reap an undant harvest. On his arrival, the mission reported twenty-e living converts, but in June and July, 1878, he and his fel-w workers baptized 8,691. In July of the same year, 1,000 ople from one community in Ongole went to the mission com-und, gave up their idols, and requested baptism. In 1884 ere were 1,556 baptisms. The number of baptisms among e Telugus exceeds 100,000. In 1894 there were twenty-five ations: baptisms for that year, 938; the whole number of embers, 56,683.

The missions of this society on the Congo in 1894 were even, with a membership of 1,289. The church at Banza anteke has been the most fruitful. The pastor, Mr. Richards, 1894, baptized 160. The church now numbers 635 members. he church at Lukunga has a membership of 541. These mis-ons are established in a climate very unfriendly to the health Europeans.

The Southern Baptists have flourishing missions in China, aly, Mexico, and elsewhere. Their missionaries, Yates, raves, and others, have exhibited heroic qualities and won stinguished success.

The Methodists of England and America have not be wanting in missionary enthusiasm. In 1782 Coke preached the negro slaves in the West Indies. Soon after his death, t Wesleyan Missionary Society was formed. Its first missio were in the West Indies and Ceylon. It also establish missions at Monrovia in Africa, and on the Pacific islan where they have shared with other churches in conflicts, sac fices, and triumphs for which these islands are renowned. T first mission of the American Methodists was established amo the Wyandotte Indians of the Northwest, where a convert negro, once a drunkard, about the year 1818, converted seve chiefs and a number of their tribes. The Missionary Soci established a mission at Monrovia in 1833. There were in li six districts embraced within the Monrovian field. These m sions are under the supervision of the Missionary Society. T other African missions are under the supervision of Bish William Taylor. All these missions which have been est lished by Bishop Taylor are called Industrial or Self Supporti Missions. The West Coast Industrial Mission has ten statio Bishop Taylor's mission on the Congo has nine stations, in Za besia, East Africa, four stations are being established. T China mission was commenced in 1847, with headquarters Foochow. In addition there are the three missions of Centr and North, and West China, and there are also the missions India, another at Bombay, one in Malaysia, one in Jap another in Corea. Nearer home are the missions in Mex and South America. In Europe they have missions in Ita Bulgaria, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, St. Petersbu North and South Germany, and Switzerland.

Among the transactions which are of popular interest w the purchase of the palace of Montezuma, which the Franc cans had transferred into a monastery, some three hundred yea before. It was converted into a church, schoolrooms, a prin ing house, and a bookstore, with two parsonages. It is one

he most complete missionary establishments in the world. In 894 the receipts of the Society for Foreign Missions were 1,047,021. The Methodists of the South give annually for this urpose about two hundred thousand dollars.

The Presbyterians of Great Britain and America have shown reat activity in all the work of foreign missions. The celerated Alexander Duff they sent out to India in 1827. Since 847 the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland has liberally upported many missions, chiefly in the West Indies. In the Jnited States the Presbyterians have divided their foreign nissions between two societies,—one in the North and the other n the South. The northern society has missions in Syria, Perria, India, Siam, Liberia, Gaboon, China and Japan, Mexico and Colombia, Chili and Brazil. It also had missions among the ribes of Indians. The income of the society in 1881 was 178,180. The southern society supports missions among the ndians of the West. It has missions in Mexico, Brazil, Italy, Greece, and China. Its income in 1881 was $69,309.

The Anglican and American Episcopal churches have always aken a lively interest in foreign missions. The names of Heber, Buchanan, and Martyn must ever be associated with his great enterprise. In 1795 the British Episcopalians united with the Dissenters in founding and supporting the London Missionary Society, but in 1812, they organized for themselves the Church Missionary Society for Africa and the East. About the same time the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, originally a Puritan association, was captured by the High Church party. It now avowedly disregards the rules of missionary comity, so far as to build on other men's foundations. The American Episcopal Board was organized in 1820. It supports missions in Greece, Mexico, Western Africa, China, Japan, Hayti, and among the red men of the West. Its ncome is about $300,000.

The Episcopal mission established by the English universi-

ties for the conversion of Central Africa, with its headquarters at Zanzibar, has done a great work. Its most distinguished missionary, Bishop Steere, translated the Scriptures into the Swahile language, which is spoken by many tribes of that region and along the banks of the Congo. The martyr Bishop Hannington was the successor of Bishop Steere. The Suez Canal, by bringing Zanzibar into the path of British and East Indian commerce, makes that island the best base for evangelizing operations in the central parts of the Dark Continent.

The Danish-Halle mission, in 1706, commenced work at Tranquebar, Madras, and Calcutta. Schwartz was sent out by this mission in 1750, and labored with great success at Tanjore and Trichinopoly. In the latter district he baptized in the course of twelve years, one thousand, two hundred and thirty-eight converts. When Hyder Ali invaded Hindustan, Schwartz being on the best terms with this Mahometan prince, did excellent service as mediator between the contending armies. He died at Tanjore. On his monument there, it is recorded that "sovereign princes, both Hindu and Mahometan, selected him as the medium of political negotiations with the British government." Hyder Ali gave him a free pass among his soldiers. It was through his intercession that the town of Cuddalore was saved from the savage hordes who were bent on its destruction.

The Moravian missions owed their existence in part to Hans Egéde, a Norwegian pastor in Greenland. Moved by the patient and self-denying labors of this man, and by the tidings of the sufferings of the negroes at St. Thomas, Count Zinzendorf, bishop of the Moravian church, and his brethren resolved in 1732 to send out two of their number to each country. They also planted missions among the Indians of North America, in Jamaica, Antigua, Barbadoes, Labrador, and St. Kitts, Australia, and Kaffraria. They sent missionaries to live and toil among the lepers of Cape Colony and Jerusalem. They were the pathfinders of Protestant missions on the western coast of Africa.

1769 nine Moravians went to the deadly coast of Senegambia, in less than two years they all fell victims to disease. But ir heroic example attracted men from fifteen different ieties. Many of the missionaries fell on the field, but as the ılts of their endeavors more than a hundred thousand natives 'e been made the disciples of Christ. Space fails us to tell the toils and adventures of Moffat, Livingstone and other neers of South Africa.

Here we must retire before an overwhelming mass of records lifferent missions and of biographies of distinguished mis-naries. There are more than six hundred histories of missions, l as many as five hundred memoirs of the modern apostles neathen tribes and nations. There are 164 different societies gaged in the conversion of mankind. The sums raised for ssions in Great Britain in 1882 amounted to $5,400,000 ; in the ited States in 1890, $4,023,005 ; in Canada, $342,000.

Of all the Protestant missions at which we have been glanc-g, those of the Pacific islands most vividly illustrate their ency in the progress of Christian civilization. What trans-mations in the Fiji islands, in the New Hebrides, and in the ndwich group ! Think of what these islands were when Wil-ms and the Gordons were murdered by the savages of Erro-ınga, and when Patteson, Bishop of Melanesia, was martyred the natives of Nukapu. In those dark days, a crew ship-ecked on any of these islands were immediately murdered or served for a cannibal sacrifice. But now wrecked mariners, ssed by waves upon these shores, are met by a kind hearted ople, flocking from every quarter, bearing food, dry clothing, d every means of rescue and relief. Cowper, a century since, ıg of the island of Juan Fernandez :—

> "But the sound of the church-going bell,
> These valleys and rocks never heard,
> Ne'er sigh'd at the sound of a knell,
> Or smiled when a Sabbath appear'd."

How different to-day! The passengers of a ship sailing towards any one of these groups hear on a Sunday morning, wafted over the water from shores as yet invisible, the sweet but distant voice of church bells, inviting to Christian worship, and as they near the coast, they see children on their way to Sunday-school, or hear happy congregations engaged in sacred praise.

'EACHING AND PREACHING.

WOMAN'S WORK IN MISSION FIELDS.

HERE is no sphere of labor open to woman more fitting to her refined nature and excellencies of character than is found in the great mission fields of the world. Millions of her own sex appeal to her; she hears the voices of ie who in all the centuries past have never yet seen a Chris-, and never heard a voice from earth or sky which gave hope heir benighted souls. Not only in what has been accom-hed, but still more in the demand of the present hour, and e yet in the splendid opportunities which the coming years sure to unfold, may every earnest woman find in the mission l a place in which all her best abilities may find abundant loyment.

When Jesus Christ came into this world, he came the truest nd of woman; the principles he formulated have been like en, exerting its influence through measures of meal, and a al resurrection was given her.

"He showed favor to classes which had for ages been shut from recognition. One woman, 'a sinner,' is told to 'sin nore,' and the charity of all centuries is summoned to con-e her shame till a sinless one is found among men. Another nan breaks perfume over his person, and the fragrance ts in fulfillment of his prophecy through all ages in the lliest expressions of pity and the gentlest ministries of love."

We do not need to journey far to seek for the benefit to ety from the uplift which Christianity has extended to

woman. Under the benign influence born of the gospel, what remarkable intellectual development of women has been wrought! What lofty achievements in the department of charity and social reform have been accomplished since the religion of Jesus Christ has been the inspiration! And in the expression of this genius of charity and endurance in grand achievement, we find no more noble examples in the world than in the foreign mission field in these our own times.

Dr. J. T. Gracey well says: "The tact, talent, and industry of missionary women, their rich resources in expediency, their loftiness of soul-power, combined with the *abandon* of their faith, suggest an addendum to the eleventh chapter of Paul's letter to the Hebrews."

From the organization of foreign missionary work until the present day, woman has taken an active part and exerted a potent Christian influence. Missionary heroines, married and unmarried, have been in the front in all the fields, and have braved dangers and death that they might penetrate the darkness of heathenism to found and build up the Christian home. No difficulties have daunted, no disappointments disheartened them. Wherever the missionary has been called to go, there has cheerfully gone the devoted, faithful wife to aid him in the establishment of the Christian church.

Unmarried women have also braved the trials of deadly climates, have worked and suffered in isolation, have met and overcome discouragements, that they might convey the living, loving gospel to other women who had it not. Their work, quiet and heroic, has been and is a great transforming power. The names of many of them are familiar household words, and their achievements are an inspiration to the Christian worker. A short review of the lives of some of these who, in the early days of mission work, amid hardships and privations, laid the foundations of woman's work, will be of interest to every one. What a great host might be named!

Eliza Agnew was the first unmarried missionary woman who went to the island of Ceylon. Her home when a child was in New York city, and her interest in missions dated from the days when as a pupil in the public school, and a student of geography, she learned from her teacher which countries of the world were heathen and which Christian lands. Then, when only eight years of age, she said, "When I grow up I will be a missionary and tell the heathen about Jesus." She never forgot this early resolution, although she waited until thirty years of age before she was able to put her resolve into execution. She then went to Ceylon, where she took charge of a boarding school for girls at Oodooville, continuing as its principal for forty-three years, during which long time she did not once revisit her home in America. Thus the children of three generations came under her personal power, and the children and grandchildren of her first pupils received training from her. She is said to have been an embodiment of goodness, and this saying is verified in that the record says, "Not one pupil taking the entire course came out of the school without being a Christian." Her pupils used to say that no morning bell was needed to rouse them from their slumbers, for at the same hour each morning, before daylight, they heard her in her room praying for the school and each pupil by name. Thirteen hundred women received from her a Christian education, and when she died they called her the "mother of a thousand daughters." So correct and general was her information that she was called by her associates an "encyclopedia."

One of the pioneers in work in India was Mrs. Sarah Boardman, who went with her husband in 1825 to that field. He accomplished an immense amount, laboring incessantly until 1830, when he died. After his death his wife continued his work, teaching and preaching to the Karen inquirers who came in from the jungle, evidencing such tact and ability in the conduct of school, that when afterward she obtained a large grant

from the English government for schools throughout the p
ince it was particularly stipulated that they should be "
ducted on the plan of Mrs. Boardman's schools." She h
great amount of physical endurance, for she made long mis
ary journeys through the Karen jungles, climbed mount
forded streams, crossed marshes, and followed the intricaci
the forests. The amount of literary work accomplished
large. She acquired an uncommon degree of fluency and p
in the Burmese language, and translated "Pilgrim's Progr
into perfect Burmese; she also acquired a knowledge of
quan, and superintended the translation of the New Testa
into that tongue, and whenever a lack of ministerial f
demanded it she conducted the worship herself in the K
assemblies. In 1834 she was married to Dr. Adoniram
son, and gave, in this act, a new token of her determinatio
lead a missionary life. For ten years more she continue
labor among the people of Tavoy, Maulmain, and Calc
not only blessing with her ministrations the heathen for w
she gave her life, but also the English residents, who
indebted to her for loving care in hours of sickness and a
tion. Such excessive and fatiguing labors told on this h
character. Her physicians strongly recommending a voya
America they secured a passage to this country and sailed
in 1845. Apparently her health began to mend; but on
ting out to sea again, after stopping at the Isle of France,
and alarming symptoms appeared, which increased until
tember 1, 1845, when she died within sight of the rocky isla
St. Helena, and was buried there—the spot made famous a
last resting place of Napoleon.

The first American woman to go as a missionary to
was Harriet Atwood Newell. She went when the cau
missions was in its infancy; when no one had gone from
shores to carry the gospel to heathen countries, when
good men looked upon the work with suspicion. Things

changed since then. Now missionaries go forth with the approval of all the good; now it is, to a large extent, a popular thing to be a missionary, although the work is still one of hardship and self-denial.

In October, 1810, she became acquainted with Rev. Samuel Newell, one of the enthusiastic apostles of missions, whose great desire, combined with that of Judson and Nott, to go as a missionary, led to the formation of the American Board of Foreign Missions. He told her of his plans and purposes, and asked her to accompany him as his wife. After months of consideration of the very momentous question, she gave an affirmative answer. They were married on the 9th of February, 1812, and started on their voyage to Calcutta on the 19th. For four months they were on board the Caravan and anchored in the harbor of Calcutta on June 17th. Forbidden by the East Indian Company to remain in Calcutta, they sailed August 4th for the Isle of France. The passage was perilous, Mrs. Newell sick with fever, and not until November did they arrive at their destination. Here it was evident that the brave woman who had endured so much had not long to live. Consumption had fastened itself on her frame, and on November 30th she was released from earthly toil. Her life was short, for she was not twenty years old when death came. Her work was soon ended, but it may be that her death and example, calling attention to the great missionary work, effected more for the cause than a long life of labor might have done.

The work of Miss Mary L. Whately, who was the daughter of Archbishop Whately of the Church of England, was a loving and lasting testimonial of her faith. Activity, energy, and intelligence of no common order, distinguished her from childhood; and among the poor, ignorant, and destitute children in Dublin she found a field for the exercise of those faculties. In 1858 she visited Cairo and the Holy Land and desired to engage in work in those countries at that time; but circumstances

rendered this impossible until 1861. Then, because of failing health, she was ordered to a southern climate, and went again to Cairo. While residing here she felt a strong desire to do something for the little Moslem girls, who seemed so utterly neglected, living the life of drudges, without a thought or hope beyond their outer life.

Miss Whately determined to give her life to their elevation. In spite of difficulties and discouragements and prophecies of failure, she opened a girls' school in her own home. Accompanied by a respectable Syrian Protestant woman, she went forth into the streets and lanes near her dwelling and persuaded the mothers to let their girls come to learn to read and sew. With infinite difficulty she gathered about eight or nine little ones, taught them the Arabic alphabet from a card she had prepared, the beginnings of needlework, and a text from the Arabic Bible she had herself learned by heart. This was the small beginning of a great work.

When Miss Whately's home life in Dublin was entirely broken up by her father's death, she settled herself in Cairo for life. With the help of two missionaries from Lebanon, she was able to add a boys' school to the one already opened for girls. In 1869, the Khedive, at the suggestion of the Prince of Wales, gave her an excellent site, just outside the city walls, on which to build her mission house and schools. She erected a large building for the boys' and girls' schools, a fourth part of the price of which was paid by friends in England, while the rest was supplied from her own resources. From that time the work continued to prosper.

In 1879 a medical mission was added, and a dispensary and patients' waiting room were built from her own private means. Indeed, she spent her whole private fortune for the cause so dear to her. She was the second unmarried missionary to go to Egypt and gave thirty years of her life to the ministry of love, the influence of which is felt all through that country.

he died March 9, 1889, in her sixty-fifth year, but she had ived to see hundreds of Egyptian women become devoted Chris-ians, competent themselves to establish work and perpetuate er teachings.

Charlotte Maria Tucker, or A. L. O. E. (a lady of England), vas an eminent writer and missionary who died in the city of Amritsir, Northern India, December 2, 1893.

Miss Tucker's life covers three distinct periods: her home ife, her literary life, and her missionary life, while her spirit-ual life enveloped the whole.

She was born in England in 1821, of the best English blood. Her father for more than fifty years held important positions under the English government, and was at one time a director of the East India Company. Her early home was one of quiet refinement and elegance, of wealth and social position. Possessed of a vivacious, buoyant, sympathetic disposition, fine features and a brilliant intellect, all these she devoted to Christian activity.

She early developed marked literary powers and speedily won distinction as a writer for young people. Her works are found in Sunday-school libraries, and young people's libraries all over the English-speaking world. She was a most voluminous writer, one firm in London having published one hundred of her works.

From a child Miss Tucker had been interested in missionary work in India, and had desired to engage in it herself. The way was not opened for her until she was fifty-four years of age, when she went at her own expense, and gave her fortune to carry on the work. For eighteen years she persistently and continuously kept at her post, never finding time for a visit to her native land. The immediate field of her labors was at Batala, Northern India, where she was identified with the high school for boys. Pre-eminently, however, her gifts of mind, her strength, and her love were consecrated to the service of

the women of India. Before going to India she studied t language of the Punjab, and the greatest and crowning wo of her life was to prepare a popular Christian literature for t women of India. She was probably the first Christian wri to issue religious storybooks in the language of that count Her books, tracts, and leaflets, of which she wrote over o hundred while in India, were translated and circulated, a have become very popular among the native women and gi in the mission schools. This Christian literature was the gre est legacy she could leave to the daughters of India, and, l cause of it, many will rise up and "call her blessed."

Bishop French wrote of her work: "She is an example an apostolic woman—one who, besides translations of her o works in the vernacular, for a year, in the absence of the m sionary in charge, presided over a Christian native boardi school of forty boys, and with incessant visits and hard a patient instructions ministered to the women of many Indi homes."

The close of this beautiful, useful life came in Decemb 1893. She contracted a severe cold from which she never covered. She died in Amritsir, but, at her own request, l body was laid to rest in the little cemetery in Batala. She l expressed a desire to be buried in native style without a co Wrapped in a sheet, her body was laid upon a native bed, a was borne by boys from the high school, to whom she l proved such a friend. It was a beautiful day, and a large p cession followed, missionaries, teachers, pupils, prominent tives, and last of all the women. The bier was covered w flowers, the offering of love. Thus was the true friend India's women, this beautiful woman of high birth, this cu vated English authoress and Christian scholar, carried to i last resting place. She will live in the hearts of the people Northern India. A. L. O. E. will live in her books, and l Christian literature is her best memorial.

eat host of such heroic women might be named, but
lelia Fiske's work in Persia must not be omitted. She
a pioneer in missionary work in that country but she
first unmarried woman to enter that field.
ested early in life in missionary work, this feeling was
intensified during her connection with Mount Holyoke
ry, both as pupil and teacher ; and it is not surprising
that when an urgent request for a teacher came from
she was ready to offer her services. She sailed in March,
aching Oroomiah in the following June. A way had
epared for woman's work, and a sentiment in favor of
s education created by Mrs. Dr. Grant, who had begun
ere in 1835. She had opened a girls' school, but only a
ls had been obtainable, and these were day scholars.
ske desired to make this a boarding school, that the
night be removed from evil influences of their homes.
position to this plan was difficult to overcome. Miss
ays in a letter written at that time, "The first Syriac
learned was *daughter*, and the next the verb *to give*, so
d to say to the people, "Give me your daughters." But
ounted a disgrace for a woman to learn to read ; and to
e this intense prejudice, to meet the poverty of the peo-
l the want of books and other proper requisites required
patience. However, the day for the opening of the
rrived, but not one pupil came. Before the close of the
Nestorian bishop came bringing two girls, and this was
inning. After the seminary had become fairly estab-
only boarders were received ; these took charge of the
ld affairs, and the school was conducted on the same
that at South Hadley.
t Miss Fiske was a wonderfully spiritually-minded
is proved by the fact that almost all who came under
uence for any time were compelled to surrender and
Christ. The year 1846 was a most memorable one, as

then for the first time the pupils were able to compr spiritually salvation by Christ, and a great number wer verted. When the seminary had been established nir years, there had been twelve revivals, and more than thirds of the pupils were earnest Christians.

Miss Fiske did not confine her labors to the schoo visited the mothers of her girls, prevailed upon them to co her room that she might talk and pray with them ; visit adjoining villages, where Sunday-school and prayer-m were established ; during vacation, she made itinerating visiting the pupils in their homes, and meeting their far Such an amount of work, so varied in its character, ser affected her health, and after fifteen years it became nec for her to return to America for rest. She reached ho 1858 ; but even here she did not obtain the needed res invitations to speak to the people came from every dire and she could not refuse ; saying, "I am so glad of an tunity to tell the people what the Lord has done in P She was offered the principalship at Mount Holyoke, b clined. She went there for a time, until other arrange could be made. She was urged to open a school in Bosto her reply to these offers was always the same, "*Persia.*"

She returned to her home in Shelburne, Massachusetts. she hoped to finish a work she had begun in memory of Lyon ; but disease rapidly developed, and for weeks she en intense suffering, until her release came July 26, 1864. monument is the seminary which now for forty-seven yea been sending forth Christian influences on the hills and of Persia.

Who can read of the heroism of Mary Moffatt in So Africa without a deep stirring of the heart,—she who ga life that Africa might be redeemed ?

The following is from the pages of the *Christian Wor* is contributed by A. J. Swann :—

ıave just visited one of the most sacred spots in these
, Shupanga. Every sense was quickened as I approached
lowed place. The days of youth flashed across my mem-
d Livingstone's devoted wife stood before my mind's eye
ıs *the* woman of Africa. I was about to visit her grave.
ng Shupanga House, one was filled with those fine feel-
hich only take possession of us at times few and far be-
There was the veranda in all its ruggedness, where the
sat and penned his diary, and where he occasionally
from weary watching at her loved bedside, in the days
Africa was dark and the great problems were unsolved.
ıstinctively one examined every foot of space; the walls
d as if they ought to bear some parting message, an
, or motto; cobwebs hung loaded with dust, and fancy
ed her eyes riveted on some such, years ago, as she felt
bing away, and listened to the doctor's anxious footstep
veranda. The view from the low window exposed the
y Zambezi rushing on in ceaseless flow towards the ocean;
where lofty palms waved high in air, the loved eyes closed
ir long sleep. The hallowed associations riveted me to
ot and 'She lives!' I cried, 'lives in my heart, in all
emories, in Africa's history, and the list of the world's her-
Wending my way through tall grass towards the place
they laid her, the mighty baobab tree standing alone,
g innumerable initials of Europeans, reared its massive
immediately before me, and under its shade stood the pure
cross erected to her memory. Out of the stillness seemed
e a far away voice saying, 'I am the resurrection and
e,' and raising my hat I was face to face with these
:—

SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF
MARY MOFFATT,
BELOVED WIFE OF DR. LIVINGSTONE,
DIED AT SHUPANGA HOUSE,
AGED 41 YEARS.

"Amongst my many African trophies may be found dead leaves and flowers gathered from the grave of Moffatt."

The long list of these heroines forbids more than a se or two to a few only. Matilda Rankin was the first miss to enter Mexico and establish work there. She suffered things for twenty years, that the gospel might be given Mexicans. Mrs. Kelley of New England, who went to Bu with her husband. Soon after their arrival he died. She on alone until failing health compelled her to return t United States. Then she took a course of medical stu well as a course in theology, and then returned to labor the interior of Burmah among the Shan people. In the years that followed, she gathered a native church about trained her own preachers, built her own bungalow, as we schoolhouse and chapel, working with an inspiration born of God.

Miss Clara Cushman went out to India in 1878, bought a property for a school, with good buildings, in North China did a work in Pekin whose good results shall never cease. is now in this country, actively engaged in this cause to w she has given her life.

Miss Anna Budden went out from her home in Alm Indiana, in 1880, to India, to a station in the interior c Himalayas. Of an heroic mold she showed herself to be. the cholera broke out and she was compelled, so far as h help is concerned, to face and fight it alone. She remove girls and women to a hill twelve miles distant, and eight sand feet high; left her farm, cattle, and storeroom: le grain cut and ungathered, not knowing how she could fe these people. It was no small matter to move eighty-five w and girls to occupy tents. The doctor left, every servant ished; the native helpers were terror-stricken. Several c women and girls died; no one would come near to help

ad left except a few native Christian women, one of whom she would assist in the burial, and together they accom-ed the melancholy task. It was a time of sore trial, but ife was spared and she is still toiling at the same station, reaping a good harvest.

Ve cannot forbear to mention Miss Mary Reed, who went ı her home in Ohio, in 1884, to the work in India. She was gned to work in Cawnpoor, but before she could begin it she taken very ill; was hurried off to Pithoragarh in the Hima-ıs, where for weeks she was unable to take up her work. these were not idle days. She devoted herself to the study ıe language, looked into the workings of the mission there, ch was under Miss Budden's supervision, and saw the um for the lepers, of which she learned there were five hun-l in a single district less than twenty miles square.

ıs soon as she was able she returned to Cawnpoor, where labored successfully for four years, and then was sent to da, to the Girls' Boarding School, remaining one year. In she returned to the home land, completely broken down in th. She endured a serious surgical operation in order to be to return to her work. For months there had been a pecul-ensation in the forefinger of her right hand, and while in hospital, a peculiar spot appeared on her cheek, low down the ear. Suddenly the nature of her disease was revealed er: she called for a medical book, read up her case, and then her physician her fears. A consultation convinced all that was right, and the verdict was confirmed by a physician had spent some time in the Sandwich Islands, making a ect of leprosy. This was in April, 1891. Now she remem-d the place in the mountains, surpassingly lovely in sur-ıdings, where a company of suffering women and men pass r sorrowful days, and felt that there was her work. Arrange-ıts were made for her to go to that "mountain retreat." said to her friends, "If you will let me go without a special

good-bye, as though I was to return to-morrow, it will much easier for me." And thus without a good-bye kiss any, she went out from home and the broken hearts. to return, and hastened on to the place of her exile.

In London, she was examined by two eminent physic and again in Bombay by experts, all of whom confirmed th cision of the physicians in America. Although assured th this stage of the disease there was no possible danger of tagion yet she did not know what day there might be, a hastened on as rapidly as her strength would permit. For n months after reaching her destination she suffered intensely constantly, and the disease made rapid progress. But late i autumn of 1892 she says that God gave to her the assur that she is to be healed of this dread malady. Since that there has been a gradual improvement in her health; progress of the disease has been stayed. From a letter wr by her April 6, 1895, we learn that more land has been bo on which to erect a branch asylum for the men and boys of institution. These buildings are being built and when pleted will provide accommodations for eighty people. she says: "I would that you could realize how wonder well I am. My general health has never been so good as ing the past two and one half years. And as for the d malady which did cause me indescribable suffering un made my body and the care of my health over to the G Physician, there are only the faintest traces; the marks become nearly invisible." God has set his seal of blessing her work, for every inmate of this asylum has become, as writes, "a baptized child of God."

Miss Theodora Crosby, who was present at the Internati Conference of Missionaries at Clifton Springs, N. Y., in 1 now back at her station in Kusaie, of the Micronesian grou islands, where, as she says, she is "three thousand miles f everywhere: three thousand miles from a yard of cloth

ool of thread or a paper of pins; three thousand miles from ay store or grocery; Honolulu is the nearest post office box—ree thousand miles away." Her isolation is so great that ails reach her only once a year. Then her letters arrive, two undred at one time. This work she undertakes that Chrisianity may be made known to the people in the "islands of the ea."

A great amount of good has been done by these noble Christian women as they have wrought in the department of iterature in the language of the people where their work has een assigned. We quote again from Dr. Gracey, who summarizes as follows: "Mrs. Mix, of the Baptist Mission in Burmah, acquired such proficiency in the Shan language that he became an able coadjutor of Dr. Cushing in the preparaion of the Shan Bible, carefully reading his manuscript and at imes taking charge of the printing in his absence, and taking arge parts of it through the press. Miss Oclad translated a ymn-book for the Chinese; Mrs. Humphrey did the same for he Methodists in North India, and Mrs. J. E. Scott issued a ook of harmonized native music, in wide use in that mission; Miss Holbrook published a work on the education of Japanese irls; Miss Spencer, of Tokio, translated the life of Susanna Wesley into Japanese; Mrs. Badey, of Lucknow, wrote in Hindustani a life of Queen Victoria, which has had a large irculation; Miss Hall, of Rome, has established a Sundayschool paper, and issues it in connection with the International Sunday-school leaflets in the Italian language. Miss Adele Field, who in China traveled among the country villages, trained many Bible women, indexed Williams's "Dictionary of the Chinese Language," and made a "Dictionary of the Swatow Dialect."

The list might be lengthened indefinitely. There are those who consider such work as these have done the work of a faatic but they have no understanding of the "divine philosophy"

of content and toil, which has its reward in contemplating development of souls who have always been in the darkne ignorance, when they receive the light. Who is able to com the results of the sacrifice and labor of these women who h gone from homes of culture, institutions of learning, and pleasures of Christian society, gone to solitariness, gone the midst of heathen gloom and the weary sameness of hea misery? They have gone, not impulsively, not actuated mere sentiment, but with "patience that could plod, with i nuity that could create, and with a practical wisdom that c conserve."

"These women are threading intricate lanes in Orie cities, wandering by the banks of the Yang-tse-Kiang and th ver La Platte, sitting under the sunny skies of Italy and or fertile plains of Mexico, scaling the Balkans, sailing the se the Mikado's Empire, and entering the gates of the "He nation," fulfilling the prophecy that "the women that pul the tidings are a great host."

SONG AND INSTRUMENT.

POWER OF MUSIC IN REFINING NATIONS.

MUSIC is the only language incapable of expressing anything impure," says Jean Paul. It is capable of expressing many human emotions which would be otherwise unutterable. The no- ıentiments find expression in music ; it gives voice to the l emotional cause, of which all other arts can but express tward effect, and has, therefore, always been associated 'eligious worship. It has had, however, a secular devel- ıt, running parallel with its religious history. J. F. Row- n has shown that prehistoric music passed through three of development, accompanied by three classes of instru- . The oldest class was the instrument of percussion ; the l was the wind instrument, and the third, stringed instru- . The last class only reached perfection in the present 'y, with the development of the modern piano.

ɜ history of the development of vocal music is shrouded curity, and can never be entirely recovered. We know he Greeks developed melody and the Romans harmony, ı not as we now understand it. With the Renaissance ı great modern revival of musical art, first in Italy, and ıfter in the Netherlands. During the fifteenth century, w countries controlled a large part of the wealth and the erce of Europe, and carried music to such perfection that n Italy, the chief musicians were from the Netherlands. thence, the influence of this school of music spread into

Germany and England, but as the head of Christendom located at Rome, it naturally attracted to itself the best ta in the world. For a long time Rome was the chief ce of musical development, under the patronage of the ch These were the days of Palestrina, who carried choral sin to great perfection toward the close of the sixteenth cen It is to Italy in this period that we look also for the inve of two principal art forms of music. During the Middle the church had encouraged miracle plays and passion pla a means of public education. They were partly dram and partly liturgical. By a slight transformation, the l ning of the modern oratorio was developed, by giving t recitative the support of stringed instruments and eleme organs, which were then just coming into use. This the development, first, of the orchestra, and second, oratorio. The name oratorio was derived from the p the church in which these liturgical dramas were perfo The subject matter was biblical narratives, very much the manner of the earlier passion plays. At this stage. little more than the model upon which the oratorio future was to be constructed.

To the same period belongs the invention of the which was simply the secular drama running on paralle with the oratorio. The subject matter at first was e derived from classic mythology, on account of influences came with the revival of learning. But the utterly f character of this material gave the opera at first an ar character. This it outgrew only with the rise of comic which began to take note of the frivolities of real me women in the real world in which they were then l Notwithstanding its artificial character, however, the op to a notable development of the orchestra, and to im ments in the style of the recitative which made it one chief forms of modern musical composition.

By the end of the seventeenth century, stringed instru-
ents, excepting the piano, had been brought to nearly their
esent perfection. The same was true of the organ, which
d reached a high stage of development in Italy, Germany,
d the Netherlands. Almost every town of any importance
d a first-class organ, with a permanent, salaried office of
ganist or *kapellmeister*. It was at this stage of development
at the two greatest masters of modern music were born, in
e same year, 1685, and in nearly the same locality. These
ere Bach, who was born at Eisenach, and Handel, who was
rn at Halle, both in North Germany. Although these two
eat men never met in the flesh, nevertheless, their lives ran
parallel lines. They were each great organists, as well as
eat composers; but, what is more, each of them had the
nius and the training which enabled him to develop the
ientific basis of music, as yet practically undiscovered.
ch was descended from a family of musicians, and more
an sixty of his descendants were great organists or great
mposers in their day. Bach's wonderful development of the
gue, and other basal forms of music, was entirely beyond
e comprehension of his day, but his work was fully recog-
zed by Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. A hundred years
ter his death, the unfolding of his primordial work was still
oing on, under the direction of great musicians, who fully
cognized the debt which they owed to him. The publica-
on of his entire works has only been completed in recent
mes. Although his scientific work was not appreciated by
is day, he was, nevertheless, appreciated as an organist and
s a composer of church music. Although a Protestant, the
ing of Saxony, in whose realm he lived, was a Catholic, and
t was for the court church of Dresden that most of his surpass-
ng passion music was composed. His talent was recognized
y the great rulers of his day, who would have honored him
ith more important positions than those which he occupied,

but nothing could persuade him to leave Leipsic, where spent the greater part of his professional life.

Handel was the son of a barber who developed into a geon, and, by marrying the widow of another surgeon, acqu a lucrative practice. He was very much opposed to the mu tastes of his son, but was finally persuaded, on account of astonishing talent, to further his musical education. At age of twenty-two, Handel visited Italy, where he met great masters of the day, Scarlatti and Corelli, who recogr him instantly as an equal, and in some respects a superior. twenty-five he made his first visit to England, and at twe eight began his permanent residence there. George I., of house of Hanover, had just become king, and Handel called, as his personal friend, to begin a professional care London. He spent twenty-five years in the production o Italian opera, during all of which time his life was a conti battle with the nobility of England, who were the partisa Italian composers and the deadly enemies of Handel. opposition was probably fortunate, as it was not until his fourth year that he began to discover his real mission: this to be the creation of the modern oratorio. His first great was "Saul," soon followed by "Israel in Egypt." Witl production of the "Messiah," his fame was secure, and alth it was followed by twenty other works of a similar char none of them could add to the height which he attained i first three. The dignity and majesty of these productions never be excelled. Handel's later life was a peaceable e ment of the triumph which he had attained. All the v united in praising his works. Publishers vied with each in producing new editions of his music, and artists clan for sittings, in creating his portraits. More than fifty port or statues of Handel are in existence, and he is buried in Poets' Corner in Westminster Abbey. Handel's theory requ that music should but express the sentiment conveyed by

nguage. In his oratorios, the simple thought of the Scriptures constituted the text, while the task which he assigned imself was to express, through tone, the idea conveyed by the ext.

Glück, like Handel, believed that music ought to second oetry, in order to strengthen the expression of the sentiment nd the interest of the drama, without interrupting the action, weakening it by superfluous embellishment. He fought the ame battle with the Italian opera in Paris which Handel had ought in London. The Italian opera, during all this time, had ultivated music for music's sake alone. Music was written to uit the voice or the caprice of whoever might happen to be the rima donna of the day. The classic subject matter with hich the people were unacquainted, seemed utterly trivial nd childish to men like Glück and Handel, who believed that usic was intended to express the emotions of living men, eir deepest yearnings and their loftiest thoughts; that it was uth and reality which music must conserve, as well as the quirements of melody and harmony. These were the same eories Wagner was to advocate in a later day, though as yet e world was not ready for them.

The work of Glück was seconded by Haydn, the father of strumental music, who matured the sonata and the symhony. He was especially successful in his treatment of the ind instruments, and in securing the proper balance in his strumentation. The sonata for one or two instruments had een well matured before his day, but he may be said to have erfected the arrangement for instrumental quartettes. Haydn ived in Austria, and was twenty years older than Mozart, who as also a resident of Vienna. Mozart continued and comleted the work of Glück; in his "Don Giovanni" and his Marriage of Figaro," he reaches absolute reality. His death t thirty-six robbed the musical world of a soul which it could l spare. But really, the world was not ready for such men.

In spite of the applause wherewith the work of Mozart was received from his very infancy, he was, nevertheless, allowed to starve.

Germany was poor in those days; the Thirty Years War had left it utterly impoverished, its trade destroyed, many of its cities burned, and whole districts abandoned, to become wild wood. Bach had labored throughout his life on a salary of $500. How he brought up his family of twenty children is more than we can understand. Glück fared better in Paris though he was finally driven out by the adherents of the Italian opera. But as great men as Haydn, Mozart, and Schubert were often left at the point of absolute privation and suffering in the midst of such a music-loving city as Vienna.

Beethoven perfected the work of this wonderful school of Viennese musicians. Mozart had carried to perfection the symphony, or instrumental prelude, to a longer vocal composition, but Beethoven gave it an added glory. Wagner says that nothing can exceed the perfection of Beethoven's symphonies; that in them he has exhausted the capacity of musical expression.

It would be hard to find a greater contrast than that presented by the lives of Mozart and Beethoven. The precocity of Mozart is beyond all belief. He composed difficult music at five years of age, and could perform the same accurately. He was able to play the violin without previous instruction at the same age, and during his sixth year, in company with his almost equally gifted sister, he was taken to all the leading courts of Europe. The astonishment which was called forth by his wonderful ability knew no bounds. Elaborate plans were perfected for verifying his age; but few could believe that he was only a boy of six. These tours were continued until his eighth year, during which time he visited all the principal courts of Germany, together with Paris and London. He did not illustrate the theory that a precocious boy is likely to be a

full man. His brilliancy never flagged. By the time of his death, he had accomplished more than the usual life work of even so gifted a man. He had a remarkably beautiful disposition, and lived a pure and noble life. Nothing could excel the nobility of character which he exhibited, in all his relations to society. He refused an appointment which offered great financial advantages, because he thought his duty required it. Beethoven, on the other hand, had no liking for music. He had to be driven to it by his father, as though it were an unwelcome task. His cyclopean figure was in sharp contrast with the delicate form of Mozart, and his spirit was as rugged and stern as his countenance. He had a massive head, with a crest of rough hair, and such severity of expression as might characterize the countenance of an ancient prophet. Like Handel, he was never married. So entirely was he occupied by his profession, that he might be said to have had no private life. His life was, nevertheless, beautiful and noble, in spite of all that is said about his irritable temper. He lived apart from the world, occupied with his own thoughts, and was such a spiritual force in the earth as Dante or Shakespeare or Michael Angelo. All the latter part of his life he was entirely deaf. This, with his isolated life and self-occupation, doubtless led to an abstraction, which might account for all the stories that are told of him. His hot temper, added to these peculiarities, undoubtedly made it difficult for people to understand him. With his increased deafness, he struck harder and harder upon the keys of his piano, as he could not hear the sound at all. This caused his landlords and fellow lodgers to complain of him and call him a madman. His pupil, Ries, relates that he would pace the room for hours at a time, howling and roaring, or keeping time with hand and foot to the music which was present to his mind. After such feverish excitement, he would pour water over his hands, heedless of what might intercept it. As a result, his landlords complained of damaged ceilings, and

his fellow lodgers declared that they or the madman m leave the house, for they could get no rest where he was. C sequently he never tarried long in one lodging. So frequer did he move that he was sometimes paying rent in three or f places at once. One of his admirers always reserved hin chamber in his house, saying to his servant, "Leave it emp Beethoven will soon come back again." It is not to be w dered at that his landlords were impatient, since the mom he entered a house, he began to write or cipher on the wal the blinds, and the table,—anything that came within his rea He frequently wrote his musical compositions on scraps paper which were afterward mislaid, so that he could not fi them. But with all these eccentricities, he had a tender hea and the kindest sympathies. His works are remarkable f their spiritual force and beauty. They constitute the be expression of the aspirations and longings which belong to t deepest passion of the human heart, but which can only fi expression in our great literature or in the greatest of music compositions. It was the inner life of the man which w revealed in his works. His greatest symphonies have be described as the musical description of a great and noble ma You cannot hear his music without seeing the hero and rec nizing his heroic character. In the field of oratorio, he thought to have even equaled Handel, in his "Mount of Olive He has exceeded all other musicians in the tireless original of his genius. So prolific was his mind that he had no need drawing from the resources of other men.

Contemporary with Beethoven, though twenty years young was Schubert, who died within a year after Beethoven. worshiped and imitated Beethoven to a considerable degr and, as his dying request, insisted that he should be buried his side. Nevertheless, he belongs to a later generation, a came under entirely different influences. During his you the Romance movement in literature was beginning to cla

attention of all Germany. His life was inspired by the s of his day, and it became his endeavor to reveal through ic the nature worship which had already inspired the poets. wrote over six hundred songs, and composed many masses offertories. He was not only fortunate in the companion- of the literary men of the Romance revolution, but was fortunate in the fact that he had the works of these men his librettos.

nother of the younger contemporaries of Beethoven, and ably the best known of all, was Weber. He also was ired by the patriotic sentiments of the Romance poets. He voice to the national sentiments of the German people dur- heir war of independence against Napoleon. His Freischütz essed the spirit of revolt which was universal in Germany, nst the usurpation of Napoleon. Nothing could exceed the larity with which it was received. It was inspired by the onal feeling, which gave so much striking originality and and passion to many of his compositions. He also had a ularly spiritual disposition, and, with the aid of the gifted s who wrote his dramas, became one of the most strikingly inal and enthusiastic of all the musicians.

Weber's name is associated with that of Meyerbeer, because were both students at one time of that remarkable man, Abbé Vogler. Meyerbeer's life was chiefly spent in Paris, re he became the exponent of German ideas, while at the e time very friendly to the Italian school. This may unt for the wide divergence of opinion with regard to his ity and standing as a musician. It is singular how many he most distinguished musicians of France were foreigners. h Glück and Meyerbeer were Germans, while Cherubini and ntini were Italians. Both the latter were very distinguished . Cherubini may be said to have laid the foundation of the lern French opera. Both he and Spontini represented very ely the influence of Glück, and combined the scholarship

and scientific learning of the Germans with the melody harmony of the Italians.

Another of the most distinguished composers of the e part of the century, and probably the greatest of all the Ital composers, was Rossini, the author of a number of well kno operas, including "Otello," "Semiramide" and "William Te His distinguished pupils, Donizetti and Bellini, were, next him, the most famous of the modern Italian composers. thirty-two, Rossini visited Paris and London, being recei with remarkable enthusiasm in both cities. He then settled Paris, where he resided for forty years, leaving a lasti impress upon French music. His contributions to the op are regarded as only second to those of Mozart.

French light opera reached its highest development in Aub the author of "Fra Diavolo." He was a pupil of Cherubi and produced a great number of popular works. A more s ous composer was Gounod, who belongs to the Franco-Germ school, and has produced many distinguished works, includi his opera of "Faust." He has also entered a much more di cult field, in which he has won a notable success, in his orat of the "Redemption." Berlioz, on the other hand, represe the extreme wing of the French romanticists, as Victor H does in literature. He is highly esteemed in Germany, but French will have none of him. He might be styled a sort French Wagner. His rejection is only a matter of course view of the well known canons of French criticism, and t too, even though Wagner himself may be partially accepte

Since the development of the modern piano, a remark group of musicians has arisen, who depend largely upon resources for their fame as composers and performers. C among these are Thalberg, Liszt, Chopin, and Von Bül Equally distinguished as a performer, and much more so composer, was Mendelssohn, who not only created such w derful music as his piano sonatas and his "Songs wit

erds," but also his remarkable oratorios of "St. Paul" and Elijah."

There is still another name which probably arouses more nflicting opinions than any that could be mentioned. Those o have not forgotten the bitter warfare between Handel and opponents in London, or between Glück and the Italian hool in Paris, will understand that it is Wagner to whom ference is intended. At the beginning of his career, he was ken of as one man arrayed against all the other musicians the world. This was properly a true description, but it was t long until his merits were fully recognized by such men as zt and even Gounod. By the middle of his career, a numer- band of the most distinguished musicians in the world were ly committed to his theories, and have ever since upheld m. He was only following out the teachings of Glück, hough he denies that his theories have been promulgated in same form by anyone else. It is certain, however, that ch and Handel, Mozart and Weber, as well as Beethoven, greatest of them all, had long been striving in the same rection. Indeed, Wagner began his career by a thorough dy of Beethoven, whom he admired and defended in all ases of his work. It was the utter variance of music and etry which had enlisted the co-operation of all these men. e opera, as they saw it, was but a series of separate musical mbers, strung together by the slight unity of recitative, but ithout real dramatic unity. The aim of all these men was ramatic truth; and it was to carry out their ideas that Wagner s spent his life. In speaking of the poet Browning, Lowell ys that his dramas are characterized by an absolute unity; extracts can be made from them. The effort to excerpt a rt from the whole, Lowell characterizes as like tearing a mb from a living body. This is because their unity is perfect; ey contain nothing superfluous. Exactly the same difference hich distinguishes Browning's works from most of his prede-

cessors is to be found in the contrast between Wagner a Italian opera. His art demands a dominant *motif*, a which every part of the work must take its proper plac order to obtain such a subject, he was driven to the earl of history; to the great epics that are prehistoric, so f exact date is concerned. He found that his characters illustrate general truth, the great underlying attributes human heart. For this purpose, the cultured man of ou day was too near, too familiar to our sight and knowl Only the creations of the great ages of myth and tra would answer his purpose, such heroes as are found i Scandinavian Eddas, or in the early epics of the Ger races. These men well illustrate all the aspirations o human heart, its passionate endeavors in the world of s or its earnest strivings after the world of the spirit. H undertaken in Lohengrin what is probably the most di *motif* that can be assigned, that is, the interpretation o traditions of the Holy Grail, which is only a mystic sym the Christian faith and its descent from the skies.

Another element in Wagner's music is his wonderful u the orchestra. It is no longer a mere accompaniment. I translates the passional *motif* of the play into one conti symphony running parallel with the action. Wagner i equal of Beethoven as a master of orchestra. He was a great poet, responding to all the romantic ideas of med sentiment, as well as of Christian revelation. Indee literary faculties were developed before he became a mus It was his effort to write an accompaniment to his first d which led to the discovery of his musical capacity. Foll the lead of the romantic school, he has returned to the n life of the beginning of the race. He discerns the sp motives which are brought into play by man's actual lif contest with sin, and his triumph over sense.

His theory requires the uniting of all the arts; he repud

idea that music is an end by itself; it requires all the other in harmony with music to produce the effects at which he s. It would seem as though his disciples have reason for ing his compositions the music of the future, and his ideals art of the future.

After many disappointments, Wagner was finally permitted ring out his works under the best advantages, at Baireuth. King of Bavaria gave him great assistance, and all his iples throughout the world contributed for some years to necessary fund for building the great opera house in which works were performed. All the arts were here made to verge, and all the sciences were put under contribution. result was a justification of the endeavor. Since then, gner has no longer needed defenders. Although the battle goes on, his disciples are so numerous and his claims so oughly recognized that they can no longer be successfully ed in question. As might be expected of so great an artist, art extends to every feature of technical acquirement. No has greater skill in writing for the human voice, no one has n able to marshal the collective forces at the disposal of the sician more readily than he. He has thoroughly united the arts of the poet and the musician, so thoroughly, indeed, t they cannot in any way be separated. The day is not far ant when we shall wonder how it ever could have been erwise.

WOMAN'S PART IN MUSIC

HER WORK IN THE FIELD OF MUSICAL ART.

"Music has something holy; unlike the other arts, it cannot paint any but what is good."—*Richter.*

"MUSIC is a language; the ideal of speech; we imagine its existence before articulate spe was known. Birds sang in Eden before Ad gave them a name. A singing bird the first music master; the wind breathing through water re sighing through the forest, hissing through tall grasses, rhythmic beat of the crested waves, the monotonous bas the waterfall, made harmony and melody before Pythag dreamed of the music of the spheres, or Hermes declared m to be the knowledge of the order of all things. We call pretty conceit of the old philosopher who believed the orde the stars to be a written scroll of music, two stars only want to complete the celestial harmony."

There is no authenticated account of any nation absolu destitute of religious ideas, however erroneous; neithe there a race of people without some idea of music, how crude and lacking in melody. Among the most barba tribes, music is used to assist in expressing emotion, and this reason is usually associated with religious rites, and symbol of mourning and lamentation, or of triumph and e tation.

It is difficult now to estimate the influence of music in p ages and among bygone peoples; but it has borne a large p

ı intellectual and æsthetic culture, and has ever been reckoned divine art, and a powerful factor in molding character and overning men.

Music is, in itself, purifying and elevating ; it can crowd out nd displace baser pleasures, and give innocent recreation and njoyment to people who must be amused ; who must be occupied for good or ill. Let this statement be accepted as true, and t will at once be acknowledged that music cannot too largely nter into and make a part of our life.

The largest success by women in music has been made as ocalists. It is well understood that before a great singer can e produced, there must not only have been a naturally fine oice, but, combined with it, there must have been a marked ower of physical endurance, and a good degree of taste and ntelligence. The training of a vocalist is a severe trial of uman strength, and the applause so readily and heartily given pon the rendition of fine music is not only in appreciation of he voice, but of the culture, the toil, and the years of patient elf-denial thereby represented.

The mighty change wrought in society by the civil war resulted in a marvelous re-adjustment of our habits, thoughts, nd tastes, in every department of life ; but in none has it been more marked than in all that relates to music. America had not then produced the brilliant array of talent which now receives the applause of the world. The great singers of the Old World feared the ocean voyage. Not often were the artists of Europe, like Jenny Lind or Jullien, attracted to our shores, and when they did come their stay was short. Circumstances now are different. American audiences are large, and are growing more and more exacting, critical, and appreciative ; and when the musicians of Europe visit us, their stay is indefinitely prolonged.

Madame Goldschmidt, then Jenny Lind, was one of the first foreign singers of note to come to the United States. Much

has been written of this lady, whose pleasant manners, kind disposition, and generous deeds charmed all with whom s came in contact, even as much as did her sweet voice.

This celebrated Swedish singer was born in Stockholm, October 6, 1821. As has been true of many a gifted one, s was the child of humble parentage, her father a teacher languages and her mother a school-mistress. The Swedes ar musical race, and the children learn to sing at an early a but it is recorded of Jenny Lind that she could sing the Swed native airs with correctness and some expression when o twenty months old. In her childhood she was always singi and her silvery voice, when she was about nine years attracted the attention of an actress named Lundberg, wh once saw the musical capabilities possessed by the little Through her influence the girl was admitted into the Conse tory of Stockholm, and became the pupil of the noted Crœ His enthusiasm over her abilities was great, and he allowed her to appear at court. Her first appearance in pu was in her eleventh year, when she took part in a childi play. For two years she delighted the people with her sing then a change in strength of voice and purity of tone apparent; her upper notes ceased almost to exist and for years she was forbidden to use her voice, except for a short time every day, with very simple music. But seventeen years of age, her upper notes returned with than their former brilliancy, and her appearance as "Agath *Der Freischütz* was a great success. Her voice, how was not yet strong; none were more conscious than she o serious defects in it and in her vocalization. She fel necessity of better instruction and determined to go to and place herself under the teaching of the noted Garcia. she did, and when she returned to Stockholm the people enraptured with her singing, and she was invited to sin Copenhagen. She appeared there in *Robert le Diable.* I

ın Andersen in his autobiography says of this occa-

was like a new revelation in the realm of art. The ıl, fresh voice forced itself into every heart; here l truth, nature, and everything was full of meaning and ence. At one concert she sang her Swedish songs. All :agen was in raptures."

ersen also says at Copenhagen she first sang for a benev- bject. A society organized to care for neglected chil- eeded funds and Jenny kindly offered to sing for the of these children. The performance gave large returns, ıdersen says that when she was told that a number of :ildren would be benefited for several years, with coun- ɜ beaming and tear-filled eyes she said, "It is, how- ɜautiful, that I can sing so." At the instance of Meyer- ho had heard her in Paris, she was engaged to sing in She also visited Hamburg and Vienna, where her suc- ıs unprecedented. An invitation to sing in London was ınd she made her *début* in that city in April, 1847. Her in England everywhere and in every character was such impart to her additional glory. Her acting, too, was admired; but the simplicity of manner and goodness of always so evident, added greatly to her charms. For ·ars she remained in Great Britain, during which time appearance was honored by the presence of the royal and court. In almost every city she gave a share of her s to charitable purposes. The following incident indica- the ready tact possessed by this sweet singer has not ɔeen told but is related by Ronald J. McNeil in the *Cen-* It occurred at Her Majesty's Theater on May 4, 1848. It e first public appearance of the Queen since the 10th of of that year, "the memorable Chartist day; but it was ıe great artist's first appearance for the season on the where she had won unparalleled fame the previous year.

Her Majesty entered the royal box at the same moment the prima donna stepped from the wings upon the stage. stantly, a perfect tumult of acclamation burst from every ner of the theater. Jenny Lind modestly retired to the of the stage, waiting till the demonstration of loyalty t sovereign should subside. The Queen, refusing to appro to herself what she imagined to be intended for the artist, no acknowledgment. The cheering continued, increased overwhelming; still no acknowledgment from the st from the royal box. At length, the situation having b embarrassing, Jenny Lind, with ready tact, ran forward footlights and sang, "God Save the Queen," which was up at the end of the solo by orchestra, chorus, and auc The Queen then came to the front of her box and bowe the opera was resumed."

Her fame had reached the Western world, and at l came to the United States in September, 1850, and, un management of P. T. Barnum, made a tour of this c Canada, Mexico, and the West Indies. Her first appearan was at Castle Garden, New York city. The opera was Diva," a selection well calculated to display the pow sweetness of her wonderful voice. An audience gathere larger than any she had yet sung before; an assembl high-wrought expectations. Nevertheless, these seeme more than realized for the delight and satisfaction of the were manifested in prolonged cheers, the waving of ha handkerchiefs, and the clapping of hands. The "S Nightingale," the "Divine Jenny," had won all hearts: one praised her; crowds went to hear her and applau showered upon her at every appearance. While in A her marriage to M. Otto Goldschmidt occurred. Her h had been a pianist and accompanied her on her America Their acquaintance began when she was in Germany, an musical studies had been pursued together.

The proceeds of her American tour, more than $175,000, Mme. Oldschmidt devoted entirely to the foundation of art scholar-ips and the endowment of schools in Sweden. To Liverpool e gave a hospital, and a part of a hospital in London is pported by funds from her bounty. She was a woman of rare od sense, and early realized that the time of retirement would me and prepared for it; so that when she gave up public pearance in 1852 or 1853, and went to reside in Dresden, she d a handsome fortune at her disposal.

The "Swedish Nightingale" rivaled either Mara or Catalani purity of tone and flexibility of vocal organs, and she cer-nly excelled both in that after her retirement from public life e was complimented with more attention than during the ight of her career.

She is affectionately remembered by many families in this untry for her gentle devotion to her own people as well as r her marvelous power of song. The following incidents are dicative of her humble religious spirit:—

"There still stands in Philadelphia an ancient church which as founded in the reign of Gustavus as a mission for the vedish emigrants then dwelling in the Western wilderness. ueen Christina, in all her mad vagaries, never forgot to send l to this little church. A pair of carved cherubs which were r gift still guard the organ loft. The church, oddly enough, nained a mission station, supported by the Swedish govern-ent until the early years of the present century.

"When Jenny Lind visited Philadelphia, in 1852, the enormous ices charged for tickets to her concerts excluded most music vers of limited means. Her wonderful gift was a delight gely for the rich.

"She had heard, however, of the little mission church, and on nday morning a plainly dressed woman entered and knelt nong the poor worshipers, listening devoutly to prayers and rmon. It was only when she joined in the hymn that they

knew they had entertained unawares, if not an angel, the woman of all the world who had the voice of one.

"When service was over she lingered in the churchyard to shake hands with her country people and talk to them in their own tongue.

"Her friend, Lady Taylor, tells the following touching story of this noble songstress. Jenny Lind declared her intention of retiring from the operatic stage, giving as a reason that the pursuit was so engrossing that it hindered her devotion to higher things. Lady Taylor found her one evening sitting on the beach, her little Bible on her lap, and renewed the argument in favor of the stage.

"'You owe your work to the world,' she said.

"'But when that work,' said the great singer gravely, 'makes me care little for this,' touching the book, 'and nothing for that,' looking at the sunset, 'it is time to give it up.'

"Not many women or men when the 'hand' or 'foot offend,' as the Master expresses it, are strong enough to cut it off that they may not be hindered in earnest preparation for the 'life that is to come.'"

Christine Nilsson, a countrywoman of Jenny Lind, also had a remarkable voice and unusual dramatic gifts. She was born August 20, 1843, in the district of Wederslöf, near Wexiö. The little Christine displayed, at a very early age, a decided taste for music, which her parents, although in very humble condition in life, fostered with great care. She was given instruction on the violin and the flute, and became so proficient in their use as to attract more than usual attention at fairs and other places of public resort where she sang, accompanying herself on the violin.

While performing in this way at a fair at Ljungby, in 1857, when she was but fourteen years old, her voice, even then showing something of the compass reached in later years, attracted the attention of Mr. F. G. Tornérhjèlm. This gentleman was a

man of influence and introduced the young girl to Baroness Leuhusen, who was herself, or had been formerly, a singer. From his lady, Christine received her first vocal lessons. Mr. Torsrhjèlm, satisfied that there was more than ordinary ability in he young voice, sent her to school at Holmstad, and then to tockholm, where she was under the instruction of Franz Berald. Her advancement was so rapid that in six months she 'as able to sing before the court of Sweden.

Her friend, Baroness Leuhusen, accompanied her to Paris, nd there Nilsson was placed under the musical direction of lasset and M. Wartel. Three years of faithful study followed, nd in 1864 she appeared as "Violetta," in *Traviata.* Her sucess was such that she was engaged to sing for three years at he Theatre Lyrique of Paris, on the stage of which she had nade her *début.* Her first appearance in London was at Her lajesty's Theater, in June, 1867, where she immediately became ı great favorite. The first impression as she sang the part of 'Violetta" was not to be the best, for success in other parts—'Lady Henrietta," "Elvira," and "Margaret" in *Faust*—was equally great. Her style was especially suited to the latter character, and to others which were more or less pathetic. A certain naïveté of look and manner, which was very charming, undoubtedly added much to her success in her earlier years.

She sang prominent parts in grand opera in Paris, and also n England in the Handel festival in the Crystal palace and Birmingham palace, in 1868. The next year she sang in Italian pera in England, and then went to Baden-Baden and Paris. n 1870 she came to America, remaining here two years, singng in concerts and operas and becoming popular wherever she ppeared.

Probably the opera company brought to this country at that ime, of which Nilsson was the bright particular star, was he most costly that had ever sung in America. M. Stra-

kosch was the conductor and manager, and the first year's work netted Nilsson $150,000.

During her stay in London in 1872, she was married. The ceremony took place in Westminster Abbey on July 27th. She had never made a professional tour of her own country, but now she visited her own native land, meeting with the same wonderful success as in other countries. Then followed visits to St. Petersburg, Moscow, Vienna, Berlin, and other capitals of Europe, and a second tour in the United States. This time she appeared as "Elsa" in Wagner's *Lohengrin*, and sang during the same season with Pauline Lucca.

M. Rouzaud, her first husband, died in 1882, and in 1887 Nilsson was again married to the Count Casa de Miranda, retiring from public life the following year. Nilsson was as sensible as was Jenny Lind, and in the heyday of her glory saved enough money to make her declining years comfortable, and was also discreet enough to retire before she became *passée*.

Of the stage favorites who are nearing retiring point, there is one whose voice has given her great wealth,—Adelina Patti. Her voice is marvelously well preserved, and, taking advantage of this fact, she has compelled prices from managers which would realize three hundred thousand dollars at the end of a season as her share. Patti has known how to invest her earnings, and has disposed of them to fine advantage. She is reported to be worth from three to four million dollars.

This financier, with the soprano voice worth so much money, was born in Madrid, Spain, February 19, 1843. Her father and mother were both singers, the mother having a particularly fine voice. Adelina is their youngest child. When she was but a child, her parents removed to the United States, taking up their residence in New York. Here she was placed in musical training under Strakosch, exhibiting great aptitude, and making fine use of her advantages and natural abilities. She made a very early public appearance in New York, singing with great accept-

n a number of entertainments. Notwithstanding this uccess, she was withdrawn from the stage for some years ther study.

· reappearance on November 24, 1859, was really her first ce upon her life work. This time she took the part of a," and was very successful in it as well as in several

r *début* in England was made in May, 1861, at the Covent n, London, as "Amina." She was entirely unknown to ople of the Old World, but her rendition of this opera l her at once to become famous. She repeated the part times, and confirmed her success by her performance of a," "Violetta," "Rosina," and others. Since 1861 Patti ppeared at Covent Garden every year, as well as in ca, maintaining her position as perhaps the most popular ic artist of the time.

› has filled engagements in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Paris, ienna, and always has enjoyed the same degree of popu-

She was married in 1868, to Marquis de Caux, but ivorced from him, and soon was united to Signor Nicolini. e striking thing about her voice is not its power, which is oderate, but its great compass, reaching F in alt, with the perfect finish. Her repertoire is extensive, having more hirty characters, some of which were revived for her, and ; she created ; but in a comparatively small number has btained any permanent popularity. She is small, with hair, eyes, and complexion, and is charming in person ıanners.

was said at the beginning of this sketch, her earnings ımounted to millions, of which she has expended a goodly n upon her home in Swansea valley, Wales. It seems a : inaccessible spot for a home, but Patti's reason for ing it was a good one. The peculiarly moist atmosphere place suited her voice better than any other locality she

could find in the British Isles. The castle takes its nam a huge, ill-shaped hill called "Craig-of-the-Night." Sh $20,000 in building a road from the railway station to the For the erection of a private theater she used $30,00 very near $1,000,000 has been spent in building and f ing the castle itself.

She is said to be generous to the poor, and watchfu best interests of her tenants. A Christmas treat is give castle every year, and once each year she sings at the concert in Swansea, which usually nets about four tl dollars for the poor of the neighborhood.

Carlotta Patti, Adelina's older sister, was thought persons to possess the better voice of the two, but she w out from opera by a disease of the hip. Her range was ous, extending from C below the treble staff to G s altissimo.

Parepa Rosa was heartily welcomed by the musi people of America when she visited us in 1866. Her vo a pure soprano, very powerful, even in register, and tho well balanced. It found ample and touching expres such parts as the first act of *Norma*. Her intonati enunciation were faultless, making her work in orato concert room unequaled. To Parepa was awarded a outburst of enthusiastic welcome as greeted Jenny L other, if we except Gerster, has equaled her in reach hearts of the people.

In social intercourse she was agreeable and winnin blessed with simple kindness of heart, and a constan good humor. She died in 1874, but her memory is held both in England and America.

Etelka Gerster, mentioned in the previous paragra born in Hungary, 1855, of wealthy parents. Her fathe prosperous merchant, who brought his family up to tastes. Music was the usual family entertainment.

ening occupied with the songs of Schubert and other German mposers was a very common occurrence.

Especial musical study was not thought of until a visitor ard Etelka sing, and spoke of the promise he thought lay in er voice. The favorable opinion of competent judges being ained, she was sent to the conservatory of music at Vienna. er first appearance was made at Venice, and was a most cided success. At Berlin the nobility flocked to hear her, d the emperor and his court were constant attendants at her presentations.

In 1877 she came to New York as the prima donna of Mapleon's English opera troupe, and during the two seasons following sang there and in the larger cities of the United States. hile Gerster was here all devotees of the opera and all lovers f song bowed in admiration before her, her winning gentleess, grace, and dramatic power having charmed every listener. er greatest success in New York, perhaps, was as "Elsa" in *ohengrin*,—a part she surrounded with an atmosphere of nderness, truth, and beauty.

She was very conscientious in the rendering of the dramatic haracters she assumed; to this and a voice of wonderful power nd expression, she owed her success. Gerster was in the enith of her powers when she married Signor Gardini. After he birth of her first child, it was soon seen that her phenomenal vocal strength had departed. It has never returned and Gerster is said to be a disappointed woman—disappointed in the great ambition of her life.

But we must not omit mention of some of the American ingers who have won an enviable position in the world of ong.

Clara Louise Kellogg was one of the first American singers o win European laurels. Although born in South Carolina, she s of New England parentage. Her musical talent is an inheriance from her mother, and, like many another gifted one, its

presence was manifest in very early childhood. When Clara Louise was fourteen years old, the family removed to New York, in which city the daughter received the whole of her musical education. After four years of diligent application, she appeared for the first time at the Academy of Music, where her success does not seem to have been great; and, in fact, it was not until 1864, four years after her first appearance, that her singing began to attract the attention of the country. Her rendition of "Marguerite" in Gounod's *Faust* won renown for her, and after singing in various cities in her own country, she went to London, making her *début* there in November, 1867. Her performance was brilliant indeed, and placed her in the front rank of famous singers of that time.

On her return to the United States she continued to sing in Italian opera until 1874, when she organized an English troupe, giving the training of singers, the rehearsals, and chorus her own supervision. The scheme was very successful financially. Clara Louise Kellogg has amassed a large fortune by means of her musical gifts, in addition to which she has a remarkable talent for business. Her departure from public life is comparatively recent, her last concert tour being made in 1889.

Another singer of northern birth first saw the light of this world in 1842, in Wayne, Kennebec county, Maine—Miss Annie Louise Carey, whose name is as familiar to every music lover in America as a "household word." Her father, shortly after her birth, removed to Gorham in the same state. As her childhood ripened into girlhood, she exhibited so much natural musical aptitude that she was sent to Boston to receive thorough musical instruction. She proved an enthusiastic student, and her services were soon desired in church choir work. She exhibited so much promise that her friends organized for her a concert, the proceeds of which enabled her to go to Europe in 1866. She studied with Corsi in Milan, and with Madame Garcia in Baden-Baden, after completing studies with whom, she accepted

gagements in opera for two years, singing successfully in the ief cities of Northern Europe before returning to America. he was rapturously received here on her return in 1870, when e appeared in conjunction with Nilsson, Campanini, and other lebrities. She gradually developed both as an actor and singer d in operas like *La Favorita* was eminently successful. She s undoubtedly the most popular contralto that had been heard that time on the lyric stage in America; if, perhaps, we except lboni, whose true contralto compassed two and one half taves, ranging as high as a mezzo-soprano.

There is a long list of other singers whose voices are sweet d pure, attracting and holding the admiration of all who sten. Minnie Hauck, of German name, but born in New York, ppeared first in 1852. Her musical education has been altoether American, but her performance here and in Europe anks her as a high class singer. Her voice is a mezzo-soprano, f great force and richness, and she is said to sing Italian, German, French, and Hungarian with equal facility.

Miss Emma C. Thursby is one of the shining examples of the ocal culture attainable in America, for, with the exception of a few months' study in Milan, her perfect method and brilliant ecution are the results of training received under the direcion of Meyer, Errani, and Madame Rudersdorf. Miss Thursby a native of Brooklyn and holds a strong place in the affecons of the American people; stronger, perhaps, than is enyed by any other singer in the country. Her voice is a pure, eet soprano, of unusual compass, with great carrying power d perfect intonation, and, because of its purity and strength, s often been heard above orchestra and chorus throughout e largest building. She made her *début* in 1870 in Boston, nce which time she has sung in all parts of Europe and Amera with great success.

Emma Abbott Wetherell overcame many and serious obstales in securing her musical education. The story of her early

struggles is one of great interest, and is an example of industry and perseverance can accomplish. Emma Ea Story also has a voice that has charmed listeners in the Old New Worlds. Emma Nevada is an American songstress has sung leading rôles in the Wagner Festival at Bayr Germany.

The number of young women who are pursuing the stud music, both vocal and instrumental, is constantly increa If these go not out into the world, claiming it for an audie surely no one will assert that the time and money spent in training of voice or hand are lost. For in the home, the and simple enjoyment of music is thus made possible. W the genius of song crowns the gospel of work, there wil fewer strikes, the grimy faces will be less haggard; unde unconscious influence of beauty, harmony, and rhythm, l will be more cheerfully, more faithfully, performed.

ACTORS AND THE STAGE.

HE WORK AND INFLUENCE OF GREAT ACTORS.

HE stage is now and always has been what the people who patronize it choose to make it. If the people are low in their tastes, ill of manners, and vicious of life, age will invariably reflect them, for it is essentially a com-ial enterprise wholly dependent upon its patrons, who must create it and maintain it. Being the creature of their will, they are it is. The stage is to real life what fiction is in ture—the index of the manners and culture of the com-ty and of the age in which it exists. Neither the actor nor ovelist poses primarily as a teacher of the intellect, or of ls, but simply as a delineator of the morals, manners, and e of the times in which the plot or play is cast. Either, to iccessful, must be true to that. Both are after profit. must pay or be abandoned. If the story, or the play, be d or foul, and yet brings a profit, it is always because the e who read or hear it prefer such stuff as being congenial emselves.

ie play, or the book on which the play is founded, must rce have an audience or readers, and so the novelist accom-ites his narrative, and the actor his play, to the public taste. may not be a high ideal, but it is what the world calls busi-

But now while everybody knows this is true, both of the and of the novel on which the stage is based, yet if the list or the actor be a true man he will not make his story s play a mere purveyor of vice or of filth. While he may

have to speak of the stye and its inhabitants. he will not t
to glorify them.

Neither the novel nor the stage creates anything, but t
restore much and mainly of the past. As mere restorer
past deeds, and motives, and persons, they should not ai
reproduce the squalid, and vile, and mean among men.
is to debase art, to which both the stage and the novel bel
The lessons of human life are never ambiguous, and al
results of human conduct are definite and inexorable. It i
noble in human nature that is at last to survive. The "th
and "chaff" have but one end,—they are to be "bur
Hence the novelist or the actor who vulgarizes virtue, or
crowns vice, is at war with the universe, that is seen mor
more to tend to righteousness.

In no age of the world have the novelist and the actor
such mighty forces for good or evil as now. The numb
those who devour novels and who frequent the playhou
simply appalling if these are or are to be wholly impleme
evil. The great bulk of the reading drawn from our ever-ex
ing public libraries is fiction. And in every town and a
every hamlet of the land may be found the theater wi
crowds of attendants. New York city alone has fifty
theaters and music halls, seating over an hundred thou
spectators, who throng them night after night for the gr
part of the year, and at an annual cost exceeding that of
schools, churches, and hospitals. The city has also a mult
of so-called concert halls, and places of low resort, each wi
crowd of attendants bent on one thing, namely, to be am
as that is what the stage is for. As yet it has no other ol
Now, be it noted, that it is not the most intellectual and ex
minds that devour the myriad novels of the day, or who c
the playhouse, but those of the immature or undeveloped.
are capable of receiving truth only in parables and who
for mental pleasure rather than for mental food. That t

ore which is given them should for their sakes be at least pure f not elevating. Can humanity thrive on filth? Can the nasses pursue vice and be ennobled, or the country in which hey live be strong? Ought men and women to be virtuous, rue, and good? If so, can they become such, or can they emain such, by constant contact or association with the gross nd low? When the blossoms of innocence and purity are lestroyed by the vile book, or by the covert suggestiveness of the laywright, can you thereafter expect the fruits of virtue and noble manhood or womanhood? Will any possible after art ulture produce those blossoms again? The fiction, therefore, whether of the novel or of the stage, should be an elevating and ennobling thing on the public life. Otherwise it has no ight to be. The stage therefore should not only amuse, but, ike all true art, it should refine, it should solace, it should inspire to pure thoughts and noble deeds.

Art is as varied as nature, but nature is never depraved save when man makes her so, and then she resents the indignity by refusing to live. Nature has infinite moods and tenses, and is never on an unchanging level. No more is man. No more are the dramas made for the stage. True the actor cannot change the morals of a bad play the dramatist may offer him, but he can, as some noble men and women among actors have done, refuse to descend to the level of the slums by acting it. Virtue is certainly as heroic as vice, and the struggle to attain and retain it is as thrilling. And is not the love for it as innate? The nearer, therefore, the dramatist or the actor gets to the true and the real in life, the greater must be his success. Humanity has lyric, and tragedy, and pathos, and comedy, and farce enough in it to amuse, interest, and instruct us all, without crowning its animalism as the chief end and aim. True, the aim of the stage is to amuse, and its appeal must be made to that large class of the populace who are in search of amusement rather than of instruction. But the contention is

that this art of amusement, while relaxing or entertaining to the mind, should not be, as the history of the stage shows it, alas! so almost constantly to have been, debasing to the morals of the recipient. It is this fact of debasement that has made the stage odious to that increasingly large class whose non-attendance upon the theater is at times so deplored by the noblest actors. Religion is not opposed to laughter, nor to pure amusement. Nor are the present habitués of the playhouse the only people that would appreciate relaxation. Is it not well, therefore, to ask of the stage whether the antagonism of the centuries between it and the church must be continued?

I am ready to grant that the stage of to-day is no more profligate than the church was in the Middle Ages. I cheerfully avow my belief that the actors of to-day are as cultured and studious and pure as were the priests of the church of those times. Nevertheless, humanity has moved upward, and Christianity with all its present sad failings is now more worthy the name of its Founder. Must the stage lag so far behind in its moral attainments and teachings—for acting is teaching—as to compel the antagonism of the church? Is the theater to be now and always alone for the non-religious class? Is the painful animality of the stage that history so constantly depicts its inevitable concomitant? Would it not be well for the dramatist and the actor to bear in mind that society in the large is purer, sweeter, better now than when Shakespeare or Molière wrote their great dramas? Nor can it be a necessity that they should now go to the moral cess-pools of the Greek gods, or the libidinous playwrights, for their tragedies, comedies, or farces. And yet one who is in a position to know declares that five sixths of all the plays now performed at the theaters of New York city are grossly impure. Must the historian Macaulay's indictment of the theater always remain true, "From the time they were opened they were the seminaries of vice"? Must the lament of a successful actress, "To keep pure on the stage is a giant's

k," always hold good? There *are* good and pure men and men on the stage of to-day,—some of earth's noblest,—but they not yet in the minority? And it is a sad, lamentable t apparent to all, that the worst playhouses are the most sucsful from a monetary point of view. Shall the stage always er for the patronage of the low and vile? Is this inevitable? Must this art—the drama—forever bear the moral leprosy of ancient progenitors? Who were they? Those wonderful l versatile people, the Greeks, who in their development of ıre supposed to have incorporated in it ideas derived from Phrygians and Egyptians. Originally it was a Bacchalia and musical entertainment held in the open air on the nmon or market places in honor of the god Dionysus, the l of wine and procreation, and consisted in chants (the use harmony being unknown to the Greeks) of odes in praise of god by a chorus originally of fifty old men or women, and idens, who wore masks of ludicrous type and distorted tures. Later these were made up to resemble animals, birds, l satyrs, the satyr chorus being clothed only with a face sk and a goatskin girdle around the loins. The dance was n as now a most important feature of these entertainments differed from the modern stage dance by being largely a metic performance of posturing and gestures of hands and ns. Their comic dance was throughout the whole reign of drama coarse, licentious, and drunken, while their tragic nce (in connection with the acting of tragedy) was rather a ırch than a dance.

The drama was not originally a mere amusement as now, t was a religious celebration instituted at the command of the acle, and was introduced into Athens, its chief home, according to the Parian Marbles and Suidas, by Thespis, about 5-520 B. C. There were in later times two of these religioramatic celebrations held during the year at Athens. The first e Lenæa or small comedy festival held in the month Gamelion

(last of January and first of February), and attended by ci of Athens only, and the *City Dionysia* two months lat which a vast multitude of Greeks and strangers from al of the world attended. This last was a universal holi which the courts were closed, all business suspended, th oners in jail temporarily set free, exhibitions of the paid to Athens made, vast processions instituted, and th dramatic and choral competitions held and the prize of awarded to the poets and actors who there struggled supremacy.

The ruins of the theater at Athens represent one remarkable buildings of the world, it being the prototyp Roman theaters, afterward so prevalent throughout the empire. It was on the south side of the Acropolis, a built of stone in the side of the hill; was semi-circular i with tiers of stone seats rising one above the other lik and seated thirty thousand people, while the theater a lopolis seated forty-four thousand. That at Athens is have been undertaken because of the breaking down dramatic festival, 499 B. C., of the rough wooden ben which the spectators then sat, and it was finished by L about 325 B. C. It was built by the state and farme lessees. At first the seats were free, but afterwards to the common fights for seats a fee was charged, the state the entrance fee of those of the poor who asked for the receipts went to the lessee, who was required to k theater in good repair and provide seats for priests, and distinguished personages who were the guests of tl The nine archons and the ten generals of the state had seats given to them. The council of five hundred ha seats; the young men from eighteen to twenty sat b selves; the women sat separate from the men; the cou being also by themselves. The crowd all dressed in w else in rich colors. Like our modern theaters the sea

ld in advance, and were often taken possession of the night fore the great performance began. The seats of the first row ere of carved emblematic marble, and had backs to them, and ere only occupied by the priests and other dignities. All the her seats were plain without backs, at an elevation from ch other of ten inches, and on these seats the people were icked regardless of comfort, save that the well to do brought eir own rugs and carpets on which to sit rather than sit on the re stone. The Greek theaters had no roof. At the bottom the auditorium was a large, flat, circular space, corresponding the modern pit, and having an altar for the sacrifices in the nter. In this space the chorus, or, as it is now called, the chestra, sang and danced. The stage was a long, narrow atform, ten feet broad, and was much higher than modern ages, being twelve feet above the orchestra, with movable eps leading to it. At the wings were buildings with robing oms for actors, and containing the stage fixtures, scenery, c., of painted curtains or boards, and the appliances, cranes, id pulleys for elevating the actors in the air, and for introicing animals on the stage, with drop scenes, cars, and stage ouses.

These dramas lasted five and six days, beginning at sunrise id continuing without intermission throughout the day, the idience eating their lunches and drinking their wine that they ad brought, during the tedious passages of the play. The oise and uproar was at times deafening, and the old chroniclers ell of many fights among the audience, so that the staffearers (modern police) had much difficulty in preserving rder. The audience would whistle, hiss, and groan, kick the eels of their sandals against the stone benches, throw figs, lives, and sometimes stones at unpopular actors, and occasionlly threw both the actor and the poet whose piece he performed, out of the theater. Some actors employed their friends o clap for them so as to drown out the hisses of opposers, and

the tired man, too, was there who slept through the entire performance and was not even awakened by the noise of the multitude going home. The vast Greek audiences of men and women and children (for everybody went) would tolerate the utmost ribaldry and the grossest obscenity, and shout approvingly when the gods were burlesqued, but woe to the actor who dared to call in question the existence of these imaginary deities in whose honor they were met. The day before the theatrical performance began the god Dionysus was brought with solemn ceremony and great *éclat* from his temple to his place in the theater.

At the festival the poets admitted to the contest were given their turn by lot and were summoned by the herald (in later times by blowing a trumpet) to appear and produce their plays. Originally the poet had to write his play and act it, i. e., chant it as at first, or if unable to act he could employ a friend to aid him. Gradually recitation and dialogue were introduced and then Thespis introduced the lyric tragedy with a single masked actor other than the poet. Later Æschylus shortened the choral odes, made the dialogue the prominent feature and introduced a second actor; and then Sophocles, whose voice was weak and who could not recite his plays, introduced a third actor and made the dialogue dramatic, which innovation was adopted by Æschylus and Cratinus, and thereafter the number of actors who could perform in a Greek play was limited to three, who were always masked. Æschylus first painted the mask to represent fierce and dreadful characters and introduced elaborate stage costumes and revolutionized tragedy by distinguishing the mythological personages by means of conventional costumes and emblems. The vastness of their theaters made these masks more effective than facial expressions but it limited the actors to a stock variety. Pollux names twenty-eight as the regular stock of tragic masks possessed by the Greek stage manager, viz., six for old men,

ght for young men, three for attendants, and eleven for omen; and forty-three as the usual number of comic masks, iz., nine for old men, eleven for young men, seven for slaves, hree for old women, and fourteen for young women. These were of the usual theater characters, such as the harsh father, the benevolent old man, the prodigal son, the rustic, the heiress, the bully, the pimp, the procuress, the courtesan, each with characteristic feature mask and appropriate costume.

The drama of the Greeks bore considerable resemblance to the modern comic opera, in that it employed speaking, singing, and acting, and, as their audiences were remarkably keen of ear and a failure to emphasize properly the meter of the poetry of their dramas either by a mistake in quantity or by inserting or dropping a syllable was at once met by a storm of disapproval from them, the Greek actor necessarily had to possess the qualities of a modern actor and an operatic singer, and so he must have also a voice of great compass and power to reach the limits of their huge theaters. As the actor was always limited by his uncouth mask that extended over the back of his head as well as his face and by his cumbersome stage dress, he had to rely very largely on his flexible voice. Hence we read that the great tragic actor Neoptolemus was at the head of his profession because of "his powerful voice," and Lucian says that the Roman Emperor Nero at a later period entered himself as actor at the Isthmian Games in order to display his voice, but was outdone by the actor Epeirotes. According to Cicero, the actors spent many years training their voices and were wont to test them before each performance by sounding all the notes from lowest to highest, and were very careful of their diet, avoiding all excess in eating and drinking. Some actors like Socrates and Simylus overtrained and became artificial and unnatural and were called "the Ranters" for their "booming and bellowing."

In addition to his uncouth masks of linen, cork, and wood

made to represent this large variety of human forms, the actor was often masked to represent birds, beasts, and the gods, and he always increased his bulk, when on the stage, by padding his chest and limbs and by high huge wooden soled sandals under his feet, and so the Greek actor was withal a spectacle to frighten the innocents. Many are the keen jibes that Lucian gives the tragic actors of his time, while Philostratus tells of an audience in Spain, who, when the actor strode on the stage enveloped in his huge wide mouthed mask, padded figure, and unearthly dress, began to be somewhat panicky, but when the actor lifted up his voice, pitched as it always was to reach the back row, and began the sonorous bellowing and clanging of the tragic stage, they rose *en masse* and fled from the theater, under the impression that the devil had visited them.

But, notwithstanding these ridiculous conditions of their drama, those Greeks had some great realistic actors, as Polus of Ægina, who taught elocution to Demosthenes, and who, shortly after the death of his favorite son, on taking part in the play of Sophocles, in that part where Electra takes the urn supposed to contain the ashes of Orestes, and sobs forth her lamentation over his death, came on the stage with the urn containing the ashes of his own son, and holding it in his hand recited the lament with such wonderful feeling as to melt his great audience to sobs and shrieks of grief. (In a similar manner Macready, the great English actor—he who would not allow his daughter to attend the theater because of its corrupt tendency—after his daughter's death, on taking the part of Virginius, played it with such power as greatly to move his audience.) It is said of Polus that so great was his reputation and power as an actor that shortly before his death, and when seventy years old, he acted eight tragedies in four days.

Another of the great actors of Greece was Theodorus—he who told the comic actor, Satyrus, that it was easy to make an audience laugh, but the difficulty was to make them weep.

but in this Theodorus had great skill; so much that, at one time, when he was performing in Thessaly, that hard-hearted tyrant, Alexander of Pheræ, fled from the theater ashamed, as he afterwards confessed to the actor, to be seen weeping over the actor's imaginary sufferings, while he had been so callous to the real ones of his countrymen. Among others of their great actors may be mentioned Aristodemus, Neoptolemus, Thessalus, and Athenodorus. The first two were frequenters of the court of Philip of Macedon, and figure in the fierce denunciations of Demosthenes, because of it. The last two were rivals at the great tragic contest at Tyre when Alexander the Great returned from Egypt, and at which contest the generals of his army served as the judges, and Athenodorus won to the disgust, if not grief, of Alexander. These two were also in a memorable contest at the *City Dionysia* at Athens, 341 B. C., where they were beaten by Neoptolemus.

Of the three actors who might take part in a Greek play, the leading actor was called the protagonist, the second the deuteragonist, the other the tritagonist. At the first, the poet, or, as we call it, the author, whose play was to be acted chose the actor, but when the drama was adopted as a state institution, the state assigned by lot and paid the service of a leading actor to each of the contesting poets, and this first actor chose the second and third, and the first alone had the prize if his play won. He had the management of the performance, played the leading parts, and, when he could be spared, he took a share of the lesser parts, with the other two actors, so that these minor parts were often played with as much excellence as the leading parts of the drama. The second actor took what is now called the "heavy parts" in a play, and the third actor the intermediate parts. The subordinate actors were forbidden by custom, that had the force of law, to outshine the leading actor even when they had better voices and were superior actors. There were also on the Greek stage extras or mutes (not called actors), such

as bodyguards, attendants, crowds of people, and boys a girls, some of these extras having occasionally a word or two say in the play. All the actors dressed in conventional c tumes, regardless of historical accuracy, their dresses being varieties of brilliant colors.

If the leading actor appointed by the state failed to appea was fined by the state. Thus Athenodorus, one of the great tr actors, was appointed at one time to appear at the *City Dion* but instead he went to attend at the festival of Alexander Great in Phœnicia, and was heavily fined by the state, which Alexander paid. All actors were called "artists of Diony Their plays were acted but once, however successful they been, and so they differed much from the "runs" of mo theaters. Plays that had been acted and were unsuccessf winning a prize might be rewritten and again entered. S of those that have come down to us and are now among "stock" of our theaters are rewritten plays. The Greeks r an exception to this rule in the case of the plays of Esc (after his death), and of "The Frogs" of Aristophanes. later, of those of Sophocles and Euripides, of which the had copies made and deposited in their archives, and to w all actors who wished to perform them had to conform.

When the drama became a state institution the state pa competing poets whose plays the chief archon (modern m had considered of sufficient merit to be put on the lists, a place of the ancient tragedy prize of a goat, and the co prize of a jar of wine and basket of figs, the winner was a sum of money. Each poet entered four plays at a co Sometimes wealthy citizens bought the plays of needy au and exhibited them as their own. Plato's poverty comp him to sell some of his. It was accounted a very great h to win this prize offered by the state. It is said of Soph that he "won twenty victories" (eighteen of them at the *Dionysia*), "was often second on the list, but never third."

: one hundred and thirty plays. Euripides, who wrote than one hundred plays, won five victories at the *City ysia* of Athens besides many elsewhere, and Æschylus was ded thirteen victories at this same *City Dionysia* or theater hens.

ıe Greeks were strongly infatuated with their drama and enormous sums on their theaters, more, it was said to their ach, than they did for the protection of the state. The ıse of the theatrical performance, other than that of the s, was defrayed by a tax on rich persons who were sup- to be public spirited enough to meet it. When a poet had tition to bring out a play granted him by the archon, that ıl assigned to him some rich citizen to act as his choragus, duty it was to defray the expense of feeding and of ng the chorus, and providing them and the mute actors lresses suitable for the exhibition. Sometimes the rivalry great that these choragi spent all their property in decorat- ıd preparing this chorus and were ruined. One such is said e dressed his chorus in gold, and Demosthenes, it is related, ıed his chorus of men with golden crowns. Occasionally ragus hired second hand material and dresses from the in theatrical costumes, the cost of a chorus to the gus generally being from three to four thousand dollars. ı a victory was won his name and the name of his poet nnounced and they were publicly crowned with garlands , and the prize tripod erected on a monument in a public This choragus was taken in turn from the ten Greek , but as some of the tribes had not enough rich men to the expense, the state in the third century B. C. assumed ıarge.

e victors at a theatrical contest celebrated their triumph aking a solemn sacrifice to the god and then a banquet l their friends. The five judges whose secret votes led on tablets at the end of each play decided the victory,

were chosen by lot from the ten tribes and were liable to pr ecution and imprisonment if their verdict was not honest. will thus be seen that the actor among the Greeks, where theater arose and flourished as nowhere else in the world, his fortune tied up by his connection with his poet much n than the modern actor has, and that the Greek theater diff in many remarkable respects from our modern ones.

The Roman theaters were simply copies of those of Greeks with a change of gods, and when Greece became ject to Rome her theaters like the Roman ones were la used for gladiatorial exhibitions until the spread of Christi abolished both the cruelty of the Roman theater and the licentiousness of the Greek theater, that of Athens contin with varying fortunes until the second century after C Until abolished by Christianity all towns of any importan the Roman empire possessed at least one theater, which fered mainly from those of Greece in being built like modern ones on level ground instead of in a hill, havin usual tiers of seats, and having a semi-circular orchest stage, and a much more elaborate and a movable sc and weird and wonderful stage effects. There were at two buildings erected, one for the performance of the and the other of the Latin dramas, like that of the Em Hadrian's magnificent theater at Tivoli, the space of a theater that was occupied by the orchestra being amon Romans seated and taken up, not by the chorus, but by ser and persons of rank, their auditorium being like the m ones, save that in the modern the seats have almost abs the pit of the ancient Roman theater. The government of theaters and the actors' proceedings were, of course, ver ferent from those of the Greeks, but of these we have not to speak.

During the early ages of Christianity the stage as an in tion was inert, if not dead; then during the Middle Ages m

ırose like the present at Oberammergau, and were acted
ths, the open air, or in the churches. With the corrup-
the times, these became satirical and at length, in the
ıth century, became wholly secular, the Catherine de'
spending vast sums on her representation of the Italian
Strolling actors went about France and England, per-
ıg in tents, sheds, and the yards of the taverns of the day,
oward the close of that century the mighty Shakespeare,
ing the example of the early Greeks, both wrote and
his great plays, performing, at first, in the sheds or
ıttached to inns, before motley audiences, who roamed
during the acting, jibed and scoffed, or applauded, as the
seized them, or bought the goods of the fakirs who
ged to the assemblies of the actors.
e in the century a permanent building in which to act
ays was built and licensed for dramatic representations
the joint management of Burbage and Shakespeare, and
following century came the "Masques," grotesque actors,
ıechanical devices for operating the more or less gorgeous
y: Ben Jonson and Inigo Jones, the first a writer of
and the latter a rare stage architect, producing by means
ored lights and parting scenes that displayed mountains,
, and the gods, some feeble representations of the old
stage. During the eighteenth century many fine build-
ere erected in Europe, and modeled somewhat after the
theaters of ancient Rome. During the present century
many large and costly theaters have been erected in
e, America, and Australia, and many new and ingenious
s adopted to produce great spectacular displays, some
g, as in the Madison Square theater, New York, two stages,
ove the other, so that while one stage floor is performing
her is being prepared and at the dropping of the curtain
sted into the former's place: while the old powdered rosin
ellows and torch for making the lightning have given

place to the electric light that flashes in zigzag cuttings th cloud painted scenery, while machines raise the wind rattle the iron sheets for thunder, and shake the cylinde its parched peas for the patter of rain on the roof.

Until within a score of years the dresses of actors, th ventional costumes, and stage accessories were of cheap such as pasteboard weapons and tin jewelry, and wit little regard to historic accurary; but now great effort is made at archæological correctness, and vast sums are spe dresses for actors and for rich furnishings for the stage, s the modern stage is fast becoming a spectacular pageant r than a drama. As but few of the great novels are capa being dramatized, those that the footlights have to set o generally but poor stuff and soon lose their interest wit public, not one in three ever making a profit; and in search for "drawing cards" the management are too gene gradually but certainly lowering the drama to the vulgarit the times of Louis XV. The past two hundred years, whil lific in many great actors, have not averaged one play tha vives as a standard in each ten years. But one of the pla Massinger and those of Shakespeare survive of that dramatic age of Elizabeth. Of the more than five tho dramatic works produced in England during that perio twenty-five are works of particular merit and not a doze standard plays. All the others have perished.

WOMAN AND THE DRAMA.

HER INFLUENCE AND POWER ON THE STAGE.

'T is customary to consider the time of the Restoration of the monarchy in England, in 1660, as the date when woman first appeared upon the stage. But historical research reveals the fact that woman began her career ramatic art and literature in the tenth century.

A nun of the convent of Gandersheim, Germany, Hrotsvitha ıame, wrote six or seven comedies. She wrote in Latin, and probably the first female dramatist known to history. She inspired by high motives and says, "I intend to substitute the picture of the dissipation of pagan women, edifying ies of pure virgins." It is an accepted fact that these plays e performed in the convent of Gandersheim by young nuns. he presence of the bishop and other high officials.

n the sixteenth century woman appeared on the professional ge in Spain and in Italy; and although prohibited by special t in Spain, and by the pope, Innocent IX., who forbade r appearance in Italy, still a woman taking the part of a nan became common in both Spanish and Italian theaters.

Early in the seventeenth century the first woman was seen ın actress on the stage of France. This was Marie Vernier, owing whose appearance came the establishment of a regular ater in France.

In England, on December 8, 1680, *Othello* was given, and oman—Mrs. Ann Marshall—took the leading female part, ecial prologue being necessary to introduce her.

Germany, where woman has done much for the de ment of the dramatic art, is the country in which wo appears latest on the stage. In the latter part of the se teenth century the first German court theater was establish and the wife of the manager thereof was the first Gem actress. Frederica Caroline Neuber and Antoinette So Schröder were two early actresses of the German school exercised great influence upon the development of the the indeed, in every new and progressive step in its evolution, w have marked their way as prominently as have men.

From those times until the present, each successive ge tion has had its favorite theatrical heroines. Since then w has reared for herself a lasting monument of art in the a of the stage. There is a delight in looking back at the bri record they have made. The achievements of Mrs. Bett Nell Gwynn, Peg Woffington, Siddons, and, in later Rachel, Adelaide Ristori, Charlotte Cushman, Fanny K Ellen Terry, and Janauschek, are proofs of what woma do in the line of true dramatic art.

Beside the "Neuberin" and Mrs. Velthen, mentioned as managers of theaters in early days, there are many examples of administrative ability among the women profession, particularly in the history of the English stag the United States. Mrs. John Drew, a fine comedienne ducted the Arch Street Theater in Philadelphia, most su fully and with dignity.

Mr. Ruskin says that among the necessary qualities t to make an artist are "sensibility and tenderness, imagi and industry." In the great women artists of the drama conditions seem to prevail; and because of these, Mod Bernhardt, Eleonora Duse, and others have been able to a plish great things.

There are many actresses of early days whose work is but their names still live. Space will allow but a w

some of them. Mrs. Betterton, whose husband was a
ıent actor in the latter part of the seventeenth century,
he same rank among contemporary actresses in London,
'husband did among actors; and the best judges of that
give him high praise both for dramatic powers and private
cter. Eleanor or Nell Gwynn was one of the most suc-
l actresses of the time in which she lived, 1650–90, acting
ıt and humorous plays on the London stage.
rgaret Woffington was born in Dublin, Ireland, of poor
s. in 1718, and when a child belonged to an itinerant show
. Her first appearance as an actress was in Dublin, where
ıde a great success. In 1740 she played in Covent Gar-
ıeater. London, and became a popular favorite. She retired
he stage in 1759, and died the next year.
: when the name and time of Sarah Siddons is reached an
s is found whose achievements deserve more than a pass-
ɔrd. This gifted woman was the daughter of Mr. Roger
le. a provincial actor, and was born at Brecon in South
. on July 5, 1755. Her career began when as a mere child
ıs brought on the stage on the occasion of a benefit of
ther's. From that time until she was fifteen years of age.
ɔntinued to act as a regular member of his company.
ras married to Mr. Siddons, a young actor. at Trinity
h, Coventry. November 29. 1773, and immediately there-
vent with her husband to act at the theater in Chelten-
Here her acting drew great attention and received much
.
e commendation reached the ears of Garrick in Lon-
vho, becoming satisfied of her ability, offered her an en-
ıent at the London Drury Lane Theater, where she made
rst appearance, on December 29. 1775, acting "Portia"
Merchant of Venice to Mr. Garrick's "Shylock." Mrs.
ıs was gifted with great beauty and magnificent physique.
ıese pleased her audiences, but her acting made no great

impression and at the end of the season she could secure no engagement.

Thus she left London in failure in 1776, but in 178 returned to enter upon a career of triumph as indisputabl greatest actress of her time. These intervening years wer passed in idleness, but in faithful study of her art and its tice on the stages of the theaters of Birmingham, Manch York, and Bath, where her reputation grew until her rec the metropolis was secured. From this time on her cours one long series of successes. She took her leave of the p in her great character of "Lady Macbeth," on the 29th of 1812, and only appeared subsequently for charitable ends promote a stage "benefit" in which she had a kindly est. Her death occurred in London on the 8th of June, 18

There are those who declare that as a tragic actress Siddons has never been excelled; she was of unblemished tation and was held in high respect by all who knew Aside from her remarkable genius as an actress she doe appear to have possessed extraordinary ability. But tra was her forte and she is said to have carried her tragedy ners to the dining or drawing room. Sir Walter Scott h corded the amusement with which at Abbotsford he hear stately blank verse to the domestic :—

"I asked for water, boy! you've brought me beer."

Perhaps a hint as to the secret of her power may be f in the following extract from Campbell's "Life of Sidd which is from Mrs. Siddons's manuscript, and her own ana of the character of "Constance" in *King John* :—

"The quality of abstraction has always appeared to n necessary in the art of acting that I shall probably be th too frequently and pertinaciously to advert to it. I am going to give a proof of its usefulness in the character u our consideration: it is one example among many oth could adduce. Whenever I was called upon to personate

aracter of Constance, I never, from the beginning of the play the end of my part in it, once suffered my dressing-room or to be closed, in order that my attention might be conntly fixed on those distressing events, which, by this means, ould plainly hear going on upon the stage, the terrible effects which progress were to be represented by me. Moreover, I er omitted to place myself, with Arthur in my hand, to hear march, when, upon the reconciliation of France and Engl, they enter the gates of Angiers to ratify the contract of riage between the Dauphin and the Lady Blanch ; the sickig sounds of that march would usually cause the bitter s of rage, disappointment, betrayed confidence, baffled ition, and, above all, the agonizing feelings of maternal ction, to gush into my eyes. The spirit of the whole drama c possession of my mind and frame, by my attention being ssantly riveted to the passing scenes. Thus did I avail self of every possible assistance, and have no doubt that the ervance of such circumstances was powerfully aidant in the resentations of those expressions of passion in the remainder his scene."

The name of Adelaide Ristori, a celebrated Italian actress, familiar and honored one. Born in 1821 at Cividale del uli, of parents who were strolling players, she almost began in the theater, making her first appearance when only two nths old, having been brought on in a basket, in the repretation of a comedy called *The New Year's Gift*. At four irs of age she began to enact juvenile parts, in which she was iost decided favorite. As she grew her sphere of employment adened, and when fourteen she became connected with the imatic company of the King of Sardinia, at Turin, remaining re until 1841.

Ristori's first teacher of the dramatic art was her father's ther, the second was Carlotta Marchioni, a famous and ierous actress who had discovered the promise of genius in

this young girl and kindly and faithfully labored to dev
From her the young Ristori received sound teaching an
cious encouragement. She was married in 1846 to
Capranica del Grillo, whose family highly disappro
union; but, finding their opposition vain, the parents r
and a reconciliation took place. Deferring to the wisl
husband's family, Ristori retired from the stage. This
ment was but temporary, however, for, hearing of the fi
embarrassment of one of her former managers, she det
to give three performances for his benefit. Her reapp
was made in 1849 at Rome, when her success was so gr
a general and public demand was made for her return
stage. Even her relatives were influenced to lay asi
aristocratic scruples and Adelaide Ristori was left fre
sue her dramatic career. Her first efforts in trage
made at this time, when she appeared in Alfieri's
She had played many parts, but the culmination of her
in Italy was reached when the rendition of this terribly
but wonderfully strong tragedy was given, and it
Ristori immense applause.

The first place as tragedy actress had been easily g
the Italian stage, and Ristori determined to present
before a French audience, and accordingly turned
toward Paris. To conquer Paris was to conquer
Rachel at that time was shining without a rival on the
stage, and Ristori, with her Italian company, presentin
at the metropolis, was a proceeding considered in the
a challenge by the first Italian actress to the first
actress." This was in 1855, during the season of the
versal Exposition, and the selection for her first ap
was *Francesca da Rimini*. Ristori played "Frances
her personation was a perfect success. Her season
from May to September, and at its close she had conqu
city. Dramatic critics, as Jules Janin, Lamartine, an

were profuse in their acknowledgment of her genius; gifts were showered upon her, and all the culture of Paris did honor to her.

A second season in Paris was like the first; this was followed by a season in Spain, in 1857; in 1858, in Berlin; in 1860, in St. Petersburg; in 1863, in London; in 1864, in Egypt at Alexandria, and later, in the same year, at Constantinople, at Athens, and at Smyrna. In 1865, by invitation of the University of Utrecht, she visited Holland. The honors of the profession had thus been gained in all parts of the old world, and what should she do but display her abilities in the country across the sea—America?

Her first appearance in this country was in New York city, at the French Theater, September 20, 1866. She was given a very cordial welcome, and her entrance in the first act of *Medea* was greeted with enthusiasm. William Winter describes her personal appearance in the following words: "Her majesty of person and demeanor; her gracious dignity; her powerful and perfectly melodious voice,—the grandest voice that has been heard on the stage in modern times; her stately Roman head; dark, flashing gray eyes; wonderful mobility of feature; luxuriant freedom and massive grace of gesture; and, above all, the sense that hung about her of an exhaustless reserve power,—could not fail, in truth, to thrill the sensitive American temperament."

The same authority also says in regard to her impersonation of "Medea." "At all points, she showed great genius and great capacities for its expression. In appearance she was a perfect type of classic beauty. In spirit she was a perfect type of fiery vitality. Her subtle knowledge of the human heart, her profound pathos, her extraordinary capacity for the utterance of vehement passion, her glowing imagination, her stateliness of intellect, and her thorough culture in dramatic art, all found utterance in this superb dramatic effort, and thus at the outset

she conquered American admiration." If victory was be with "Medea," it was finished by her "Mary Stuart," and "Queen Elizabeth," and her name will be identified with t characters in the history of the drama.

Her engagement in America extended over a period of months. She went home to Europe, in May, 1867, but retu to New York in September of the same year, for her next A can engagement. This season lasted over nine months an signalized by the production of the new drama *Marie A nette.* Her engagements in America were very prospe and personally as well as professionally she made a most ant impression throughout the country.

Contemporary with Ristori was a most talented dramatic of our own country—Charlotte Saunders Cushman. She wa in Boston in 1816, and died there in 1876. Her ancestors Puritan, and she traced her pedigree back to the landing Mayflower. The early death of her father left the mot poverty with a family of five children, of which Charlott the eldest. Possessed of a good voice, she took lessons in ing, hoping soon to be able to render assistance in the s of the family. Her first appearance was in 1830, when fourteen years of age, at a public concert in Boston. H contralto voice and good manner were highly approve success in the lyric world seemed assured.

But in 1835, while in New Orleans, she suddenly lost of her voice, at least so far as musical tones were conc Great disheartenment followed, and she was at a loss course to pursue. At this time Mr. Barton, a tragedian posed that she take a dramatic part; willing to do anyth assist herself in gaining a livelihood, she accepted the c ter he proposed, which was no less than "Lady Mac From the first success was hers. She sustained the part gra and the "promising prima donna became on the instan favorite tragedienne." Every manager wanted her, an

rapidly added to her repertory such characters as "Romeo," "Bianca," "Helen McGregor," "Goneril," "Tullia," and the wonderful "Meg Merrilies." Later she played very successfully both "Queen Catharine," and "Cardinal Wolsey," in *Henry VIII.*; "Ophelia," "Pauline," "Lady Teazle," and many other parts.

While her delineation of Shakespeare's women was great, she will undoubtedly be longest remembered as "Meg Merrilies." She visited England and the continent twice, and in London and the principal cities of England attained exceptional triumphs. Rome was her home for several years, where she enjoyed the society of many cultured people of her own country and was an intimate friend of Miss Emma Stebbins, the American sculptor.

She was a great and good artist, but it was not this alone that made her celebrated. She was a good woman in the full meaning of the term, honored in the most cultivated society in America and Europe. Her final appearance in New York, when she took leave of the stage of that city, was most memorable. On this last night she played "Lady Macbeth." As the curtain fell, a body of most eminent citizens, with William Cullen Bryant as leader, came upon the stage and presented the actress with a laurel crown inscribed :—

"C. C. *Palmam qui meruit ferat.*"

Miss Cushman never married. She was buried in Mount Auburn, near Boston, where her grave is marked by an obelisk, which is in form an exact copy of Cleopatra's needle as it stood at Heliopolis.

Of the foreign actresses who have played during the last two decades in this country, Modjeska and Bernhardt have acquired a permanent reputation. Modjeska has stood the test of public trial. On her first appearance in this country she won a cordial critical appreciation which has increased in the years

of her work here, and she has grown constantly in popular favor.

Modjeska was born, Helena Benda, in Cracow, Poland, in 1844. She was married to G. S. Modjeska in 1860. In 1868, Modjeska having died a few years previously, she was married to Count Charles Bozenta Chlapowski. Her career as an actress began in 1861, the small town of Bochnia, in her native land, seeing her first performance. In the years immediately following, she traveled with her brothers and sister, who were also actors, performing in the towns near her home, and the year 1865 found her the leading actress in Cracow, her birthplace. The next year she made a most triumphant entrée upon the stage at Warsaw. Her success was so great that she was engaged for life to play in the Imperial Theater of that town. Until 1876 she acted before those people, introducing to them the highest class of tragedy, playing the heroines of Shakespeare, Goethe, Schiller, and Molière, having a repertory of two hundred and eighty-four parts in her native tongue. Born of a family of actors, taught by a dramatic author, she became the first actress of the land, and was personally greatly beloved.

In the year of our Centennial, Count Bozenta, wearied with the vexations coming from a political life, and Modjeska, tired with fifteen years of continued effort upon the stage, came to America, visited the Exposition at Philadelphia, and then went to California, near Los Angeles, to make a home, hoping to found a Polish colony.

It is said that to one who has successfully kindled enthusiasm on the stage of the theater, the fascination of the life never loses its power. Modjeska soon found the life on the ranch not so absorbingly interesting and began to look with desire to the old life. So she began to learn English, beginning with the a, b, c, in February, 1877, and in June following was offered a chief role in a play in San Francisco. She hesitated about accepting, as her English was so imperfect, but finally consented.

ıd played "Adrienne Lecouvreur," meeting with fine suc-
ss.

Of course, offers for "star" engagements in the principal
wns of California followed immediately, and soon the new
ıd strange name of the now great Polish tragedienne was
ralded throughout the country.

She has since made a number of tours throughout the
nited States and England, and has visited Poland profession-
ly. "Beatrice," "Imogen," "Juliet," and "Rosalind" are her
vorite Shakespearean characters, but she has achieved dis-
ıction as "Mary Stuart" and "Camille."

Unlike so many women who have reached high levels in the
amatic art, Modjeska has lost none of her womanliness. Men,
ıo are more sensitive than women to this lack, find her per-
nality feminine, and women have no charge of masculinity
bring against her. But, particularly, she does not possess
e slightest suggestion of wickedness. So far is she from
ch a character, that, in her hands, rôles which exhibit de-
aved women are elevated and purified by her management
them.

Goodness, rather than wickedness, is the suggestion flowing
ım Madame Modjeska's theory and practice. She is a con-
ientious artist, never playing indifferently: she gives suffi-
ent attention to all parts of a rôle—leaves no minor thing
ıdone.

One critic says: "Modjeska may have her equal, possibly
r superior, in some directions; but it is doubtful if there is
nother so well-rounded a genius as she. Janauschek has
roved her genius for tragedy. Bernhardt has rôles in which
he is not surpassed; but none can run the whole gamut of the
motions like Modjeska."

Madame Modjeska returned from their latest trip abroad in
August, 1895. She and her husband were gone about a year,
ut she did only a little acting, two months in Poland comprising

all. She expected to play in St. Petersburg, and all arra
ments were made. Just before the date of her appearance.
government forbade her. When she sought to discover
reason. the most she could learn was a rumor that an add
she had made at the World's Fair had offended the gov
ment. but as she could not remember anything in her add
that should have caused offense to the Russian authorities,
believed the reason given to be a mere subterfuge. She w
to Warsaw. but was ordered to leave the country in twenty-f
hours.

Modjeska's present tour through the United States is
nounced as her farewell to the American stage. She does
retire by reason of any weakening of her powers, but to enj
a respite from care and toil which she has honestly earn
With her retirement the stage will lose one of its great artis
and one whose gentleness and loveliness of character w
appreciated not only by her own race and home people but
all who in any way have come to know her.

The name of Bernhardt is a familiar one in the theatri
world. Rosine, or Sara, Bernhardt was born in Paris. Octo
22, 1844, and is the daughter of a Jewish father and a Du
mother. A number of years of childhood were passed in A
sterdam, in the home of her grandfather, but while yet a m
child her mother placed her in a convent at Versailles, wh
she remained for several years. It would seem that dur
these first years of life she had thoughts of stage life, but
undecided, even at the time of leaving the convent, to un
take it. She vacillated between the theatrical stage an
nun's life. When she left the convent and was asked what
intended to do. her reply was, "To become an actress at
Comédie Française, or a nun."

Her choice seems soon to have been made, for, at fourte
she entered the Paris Conservatoire, and soon exhibited ma
of talent, taking prizes in tragedy and comedy. Her debut w

e in 1862 as "Iphigenie" at the Theatre Francais. Not much rest was aroused by her playing, and she withdrew for her study; but meantime acted in burlesque at the comedy ter. In January, 1867, she took up legitimate comedy, by the impersonation of the Queen in *Ruy Blas*, at the on, gained such renown that she was recalled to the Fran-, and began a career recognized as foremost in French edy. In 1879 she played with brilliant results in London, made extended tours in Italy, Russia, and the Americas. came first to New York in 1880, and again in '87 and '91. marriage to M. Damala, a Greek actor, occurred in London 82, the union not being, however, of long duration, Bern-t seeking and obtaining a divorce. She has impersonated itle characters of Racine's great plays, acted Shakespeare's acters, and plays have been especially written to elicit her est powers.

ı coming to the United States, Bernhardt had to meet a t amount of prejudice. The peculiar habits of her private her not attractive personal appearance, and eccentric man- had raised a formidable barrier of prejudice not easily come.

r. Richard Grant White relates how thoroughly prejudiced as in going to see her first performance in New York, h was at Booth's Theater, of "Adrienne Lecouvreur." The sight deepened his unfavorable impressions. After fifteen ıtes, however, he found his mental attitude changing. He me interested, absorbed, and felt that her great power had been worthily or correctly set forth. She is very brilliant, is also cold and hard, and has not the sympathetic power ir the heart which Modjeska possesses. Her acting is a ect piece of mechanism.

he is called the first of living actresses, and if ability to play eat number of parts entitles her to this position, then she it. But Mr. White also says to this that she is not a great

artist, cannot be, not in the grand style ; that she is morally physically unable. Of the grand, the heroic, the truly ti in general, she is incapable, not intellectually, but morally physically.

The expression of true womanliness as depicted by Charles Kean is never seen in a French actress. With hardt, the slight flavor of insincerity mars the perfection acting. In isolated scenes and passages, the expressio action are perfect, but the complete identification of the a with her part is not sustained ; some gesture, look, or by and the illusion is dissolved.

Bernhardt is not only a celebrated actress, but she is a tor of no small ability, and is also something of a painter.

Ellen Alice Terry was born at Coventry, February 27 Her first appearance was as a child, at the Princess's The London, which was under the management of Mr. an Charles Kean, remaining with them until they gave up m ment in London. Next, Miss Terry was at the Royal Haymarket Theaters, and her first work in legitimate c was done in the London Comedy Theater. During the these years she met and acted with Irving for the first ti

She left the stage in about 1871, and did no acting for years ; but when Mr. Irving took the management Lyceum Theater, he secured the services of Miss Terry, a made her first reappearance on December 30, 1878, playi the first time "Ophelia," to the "Hamlet" of Mr. Irving. which had a run of one hundred nights. Afterwards she "Portia" in *Merchant of Venice*, "Desdemona" and "J to the "Othello" and "Iago" of Irving and Edwin Boot Irving's "Romeo."

On tours in the United States with Henry Irving in the 1883, '84, and '88, she played all the leading rôles in he known repertoire. Great enthusiasm met her efforts, a reputation as a fine actress became well established in Am

On her return to England, she was honored with an invitation to play before the Queen at Sandringham palace.

In "Stray Memories," Ellen Terry says, the "ambition to become a good actress caught fire at a very early age." The first play in which she acted was *The Winter's Tale.* The part of "Mamillius" was assigned to her, and she says, "How my heart swelled with pride when I was told what I had to do! I can see myself now, in my little red and white coat, my pink silk stockings, and a row of tight sausage curls clustered round my head. A small go-cart, which it was my duty to drag about the stage, was at once a keen source of pride and a great trouble to me. My first dramatic failure dates from that 'go-cart.' I was told to run about the stage, and, carrying out the instruction with more vigor than discretion, tripped over the handle and down I came on my back. A titter ran through the audience, and I felt that my career as an actress was ruined forever."

The wonderful fire and genius of Mrs. Kean made a powerful and lasting impression on the young girl, and she pays the most hearty tribute to the careful kindness of her instruction. Mrs. Kean was mistress of the art of difficult and clear articulation, and she was untiring in her discipline in this department. Deportment, carriage, and manners all received marked attention, but Miss Terry says the most important thing acquired was the love for that most wholesome food on which she had been nourished from her earliest youth—the Shakespearean drama.

In "Stray Memories" Miss Terry also mentions a delight early felt in portraying an imaginative character. In the first days of her work at the Princess, she took the part of "Puck," in *Midsummer Night's Dream,* a play that had a run of two hundred and fifty nights, a remarkable occurrence for those times. She says, "Puck was the part allotted to me. I reveled in the impish unreason of the sprite; and now I feel the charm of parts where imagination can have free play, and there is no

occasion to observe too closely the cold hard rules of conventionality and the fetters of dry-as-dust memories."

She speaks of her father and mother as "clever, conscientious parents who spared no pains to bring out and perfect any talents their children possessed. Father was a most charming elocutionist and my mother would read Shakespeare beautifully."

We close the sketch of this charming actress with the following sonnet by Thomas Bailey Aldrich, called out by her "Portia" in the *Merchant of Venice*:—

"As there she lives and moves upon the scene,
So lived and moved this radiant womanhood
In Shakespeare's vision ; in such wise she stood
Smiling upon Bassanio ; such her mien
When pity dimmed her eyelid's golden sheen,
Hearing Antonio's story, and the blood
Paled on her cheek, and all her lightsome mood
Was gone. This shape in Shakespeare's thought has been!
Thus dreamt he of her in gray London town ;
Such were her eyes ; on such gold colored hair
The grave young judge's velvet cap was set ;
So stood she lovely in her crimson gown !
Mine were a happy cast could I but snare
Her beauty in a sonnet's fragile net ! "

Mary Anderson is an actress of American birth who acquired a considerable prominence in the theatrical world. This lady was born at Sacramento, California, July 28, 1859. The family home was removed to Louisville, Kentucky, in 1860, and, on the breaking out of the rebellion, her father entered the Confederate service, and died at Mobile, Alabama, in 1860. In 1867 Mrs. Anderson was married to Dr. Hamilton Griffin of Louisville. The little Mary was fortunate in her stepfather, for, realizing that under her very modest and retiring demeanor there was hidden a genius, he did everything in his power to bring it to light.

The young girl acquired her education at the Ursuline Convent, and at the Academy of Presentation Nuns. A fancy for the drama and for dramatic literature was very early manifested. Before she was ten years of age she began to read Shakespeare, and other dramatic authors; but the fire that set burning her ambition to become an actress was kindled when she saw Edwin Booth act. Her stepfather promoted her desire in every way possible. He saw that her naturally fine mind was disciplined by diligent study, which soon began to bear legitimate fruit. Charlotte Cushman was her friend, and gave her excellent instruction; Noble Butler of Louisville helped her to understand Shakespeare; Father Anthony Müller, a Franciscan priest, instructed her in elocution, and Vanderhoff, the reader, gave her ten lessons to fit her for the stage. She gave private exhibitions of her talent in her home in scenes from Shakespeare, but when she applied to the manager of the principal theater of her own city, he refused for a long time to bring her on. However, he finally consented, and in November, 1875, he made her debut in *Romeo and Juliet*. She created a great sensation, and from that time her success was assured.

Engagements in St. Louis and San Francisco, and a most successful tour of the Southern states, followed. Her first appearance in New York was with a company of her own formation, on November 12, 1877. The next year she went abroad, visiting the great capitals, and Stratford and Verona, winning the enviable reputation of being the greatest American actress. In the fall of 1882, she returned to Louisville, where the citizens gave her a reception and crowned her with a laurel wreath, Colonel Henry Watterson making the presentation speech. The year 1883 saw her on another tour of American cities. On September first of the same year, she began a successful season at Henry Irving's Lyceum Theater in London, as "Parthenia." The next five years she alternated between Europe and America, working winters, traveling and resting in the summers.

By this time her great beauty and her blameless life ha caused her to become a great favorite with society and she wa much sought after by the English nobility. But she remaine true to her modest and retiring nature, declining the advanc of scores of admirers, even the Prince of Wales seeking in vai

The years of 1888 and '89 were spent in New York and Bo ton. In the spring of '89 a serious illness attacked her and sl was obliged to cancel all engagements, and sailed for Europ seeking needed rest in seclusion and quiet. She was marri on June 17, 1890, to Mr. Antonio F. de Navarro, and spent t following winter in Venice. The next spring she abandon stage life, and disposed of all dresses, scenery, and proper relating thereto.

During these later months the remark has been often mad and the sentiment has found expression on the printed pages our popular magazines, and in the columns of our best new papers—that the three living actresses now in active life whom the title "great" would, by common consent, be applie are Sara Bernhardt, Helena Modjeska, and Eleonora Duse.

The first two names are familiar, but who is Eleonora Dus Perhaps the best answer can be found in an article in a la number of the *Century*, written by J. Ranken Towse, and fro which the following is condensed.

Eleonora Duse was born about thirty-three years ago Vigevano, a small town on the borders of Piedmont and Lo bardy, and came of theatrical stock, both her father and grar father being actors of good standing. Her father was po and, to help provide for the family needs, Eleonora was se upon the stage when less than twelve years old. From t first she played leading characters both in tragedy and comed Her abilities must have been precocious: although her au ences were probably not very critical, yet that any wou accept a girl of twelve to represent Francesca da Rimini prov her natural ability. She is said to have often known the pan

nger in those days, for she was paid but a small sum for rvices in the inferior theaters, in which alone she could e engagements. For four years her life was one round of ant drudgery, rehearsing new parts by day and acting at . But when she was sixteen there came an opportunity r to play "Juliet" in Verona. She admired the part, and tudied it carefully, and when the time came the young s played with power and passion, provoking a storm of siasm. This was her first great triumph, but the obstand difficulties were not all overcome. She still was the g actress of a traveling company, and still wandered one provincial town to another. Finally an engagement old Florentine Theater in Naples gave her an appreciaudience, and a competent supporting company, and from ime her fame and fortune have been assured.

Triumph succeeded to triumph, and critics vied with one er in expressing admiration of her versatility, of the simy and wonderful effectiveness of her methods, of the fulness and power of her pathos and passion, and of her ling, vivacious, and effervescent humor." She conquered e as she had conquered Naples, and in a few months ed the front rank of her profession in her native country. ts of her genius were spread abroad, and she was soon d to visit the principal European capitals. Paris and a confirmed the Italian verdict, and, emboldened by sucshe crossed the Atlantic to New York. Afterwards the al world of London bowed before her, and her name, unn outside of Italy four years before, had become famous ghout the world.

was on the 23d of January, 1893, that Signora Duse made rst professional appearance in New York. It was at the Avenue Theater, in *Camille*. The audience was large, s, rather apathetic, and suspicious. What advertising ad, had not been extensive, but had been expressed in

rather extravagant terms. The rôle was a hackneyed one, and consequently challenged comparison with every actress of note during the last twenty years; but when the curtain fell for the last time, after scenes of uncommon enthusiasm, she had demonstrated her right to be considered the peer of any of them. The impression she created of originality, brilliancy, and sincerity was more than confirmed by each succeeding impersonation.

Duse possesses, in a larger measure than any other actress, the Protean gift of genuine impersonation. With a face and figure devoid of any peculiar characteristic, she identifies herself with the fictitious personality by subtile and appropriate transformations, in which gait, gesture, carriage, and facial expression all play their part. In this respect, beyond question, she is the greatest actress of the day, and among men Salvini alone takes rank above her or beside her. It is to be hoped that nothing will prevent her coming to this country again, which offers a wide field for such a genius as hers.

HE WORLD'S FINANCIERS.

'ORY OF MONEY AND ITS POWER AMONG NATIONS.

NCIENT financiers carried on immense monetary operations, as the history of the great wars, gigantic buildings, and industrial operations of those times bears witness. The Great Pyramid of Egypt cost, ng to the record there made, over a million dollars. t of sustaining the immense military establishments of sent powers of Europe has brought most of them to the f insolvency, yet modern armies are small in contrast e great hordes of men led forth by the ancient monarchs pt and Persia and Babylon, and the other Oriental of which historians have given us record.

n illustration of the wealth of those times, it may be ied that when Xerxes' great host arrived at Celænæ in , Phythius, the prince, entertained the king and all his t his expense, and also offered to give Xerxes eight and nillions of dollars of gold, and a million two hundred enty-five thousand dollars of silver, which he then had . This was part proceeds of Phythius's mines, that he by the forced labor of his subjects. Athenæus assures at the capture of Nineveh by the Medes, its king piled his treasures in his palace and burned himself em, and that their value was over fifteen billions of History tells us that Alexander the Great took from as booty, three hundred and thirty-five millions of dollars alone.

Besides these vast army expenditures of ancient times, there was added the cost of sustaining their monarchical systems of government: the king, his harem, and the vast retinue of hangers-on at court, and of the great army of civil officials in city and country to enforce law and collect revenue; for all this, money or its equivalent must be had, so that the great bulk of the wealth produced by the toilers of the old empires went into the public treasury through some one of the numerous devices employed to filch it from them. Hence there was much need both of a system of public revenue and of able financiers.

In the time of Abraham, when money is first mentioned in the Bible, there was already such a system extant in Egypt and undoubtedly also in Nineveh and Babylon. The ancient Vedas of the Hindus mention purses of gold, pieces of gold and the coins dinara and niska as being then extant. "A crore of gold coins" is mentioned in the Mahabarata, and Panini, writing before the invasion of India by Darius Hystaspes (521 B. C.), defines words then used as money terms in India, among them "rupya" from rupa to strike, modern rupee, and all of those ancient terms for money are yet in daily use in India.

The oldest Indian coins now extant are of electrum, a mixture of gold and silver. Such mixed coins were in use in Egypt, Argos, Lydia, and Carthage in early times, and by the Japanese as late as 1866 A. D. India seems to have been very rich in the precious metals in prehistoric times, and to have fallen early and often into the hands of the robber and of the usurer.

When Scylax of Caryandra returned from the boat expedition down the Indus river, to the ocean and back by the Red sea, at Darius's command, and reported to the king the great wealth, fertility, and populousness of the country through which he had passed, that worthy lost no time in putting his great army in motion to conquer, that is, to plunder, the land, which having done, he imposed upon the people, after the cus-

f both ancient and modern bandits, an annual tax or
e of $2,500,000 in coin, which was, in this case, nearly a
of the whole coin revenue he had hitherto received from
ıpire, his taxes being paid in products.
ter him came that other famous brigand, Alexander the
, in 332 B. C., and then twenty years later came Seleucus
or, each of them taking vast spoils of gold and silver from

en the Moslems from 698 A. D. to 1001 A. D. robbed the
n various raids at sundry times. These last robbers relig-
' dedicated one fifth of their spoils to God and sent it to
rabian caliph at Mecca, while the remainder went to en-
the spoilers at Bagdad, Damascus, and Merv, the Koran
ding, "Whenever ye seize anything as a spoil, to God
gs a fifth thereof."
mur the Tartar plundered India in 1398 A. D., and the Por-
se, Dutch, and French robbed the coast cities and towns
20 A. D. Sixty-eight years later the East India Company,
rs, entered the country, and "financiered" the people to
reat profit of the usurers' breeches pockets.
ıdir Shah of Persia plundered India in 1739 A. D. at point
e sword, and ten years later the East India Company
ved suit, and thereafter kindly milked that people until
time in 1858 A. D. the British Crown assumed control, and
l the Company's rule, since which time England gathers
's cream, i. e., its gold and silver.
the prehistoric and archaic periods of time the ratio be-
n these money metals was, according to Strabo and Gibbon,
in India. For three thousand years, 1650 B. C. to 1530 A. D.,
ıtio in that vast country ranged from 5 and 6½ of silver to
old. From the weights as given by Oppert of the inscribed
s of gold and silver found under Sargon's palace at Khors-
the ratio in Syria was 13 to 1 in 706 B. C., and from the
seen in the inscriptions of Tutmosis at Karnak (1600 B. C.),

Brandis gives that of Egypt at that time as 13½ to 1, v
Judea according to the Hebrew scriptures it was 13 to 1.
we read of those countries carrying on an immense tra
India, to their great enrichment. As a sample, the p
of a single shipment from India to King Solomon o
amounted, according to Strabo and Dean Prideaux, to
000. And so we read, I. Kings x : 21, that in Solomo
silver was of no account in Jerusalem, he being able to
cent for cent profit on his great India trade, by reason
disparity of ratios.

The Mahabarata wars, 1650 B. C., seem to have been
sible for the introduction of that strange commodity-
the cowrie, or shell money, yet in use in some parts of th
Marsden concludes that the robbery of gold and silve
India by Darius, Alexander, and Seleucus was so great
led, for so many years thereafter, to the almost exclusiv
copper for coins in that vast country.

The kings of the old empire times of Egypt, accor
the Egyptologists, never seem to have struck coins or
their taxes, it is supposed, being paid to them in pro
labor, and wages perhaps in kind, yet the precious meta
in great abundance then, as appears by their extensiv
the various arts of Egypt. The monuments and the
Egypt show that in the days of the Shepherd, or
(Scythian), Kings, 2000 B.C., the ancient Scyths' baug mo
in use in Egypt. At a later period, 1750 B. C., we rea
Biblical narrative of a famous financier, one Joseph, a
slave, who came to great honor and power in that count
incidentally, mention is made of the existence in Eg
strangely privileged class supported out of the public
—the sacerdotal or priestly class, a class that for thous
years exercised throughout the ancient world a weir
over the finances of the people. This financier, we
bought for the king as slaves the common people, and

d of the people save that of these priests, during a famine of en years' duration—this after the common people had parted h their money, cattle, horses, and all their worldly goods in ying food at the king's granaries; and this treasurer enacted h a law that the fifth part of the produce of the country there- r should be the king's, the priestly class alone being ex- pted, a condition that exists yet, in part, in Egypt. Evidently e ancient priests were persons of much political power, or e they were held in very great esteem by the other classes of e populace to permit so great disparity of treatment.

Near this same period the Buddhic priests of India inter- ted the use of gold to the people, as may be seen in the Ten mmandments of the Vinaya. A strange thing constantly fronts the student of ancient financiering, to wit: that for usands of years the coinage of gold and silver was inter- ted to the people by the rulers of the civilizations of the cient world, and was claimed as the exclusive privilege of e priests or of the priest-kings, the coinage (especially of d) being done in the temples, and stamped with the figure or blems of their particular god or religion. The kings, who ly laid claim to be of divine origin, or of the gods' special pointment, were also wont, in later ages, to stamp their ge, often together with the god's emblem, on such coins, d they punished with instant war and death any subject, ruler, te, city, or person who dared to strike coins, shrewdly and htly judging that, by controlling the money of the people, y could "finance" the world and "farm" humanity greatly their profit. Not only did these two classes of astute finan- rs control the coinage of these money metals, but generally y claimed a large part and often the whole of such metals oduced by the people.

In Japan, for ages, their heaven-appointed rulers exacted o thirds of all such metals. In India the Code of Manu gave e kings one half of the gold and silver spoil or produce. In

Egypt one fifth went to the hierarchy. Under the stat
Moses, one tenth was demanded. The priests of the te
Delphi required one tenth from all the gold mines; so
Roman kings, while the Moslem rulers demanded one fif
later times the financiers of Portugal took for the kin
A. D. to 1550 A. D.) one half of all the gold found on th
Tagus, and John of Castile (1579 A. D.) took one half
gross proceeds of all mines in his domain. Queen Eliza
England took one fifth of the products of the Nova Scotia
The kings of Spain took one fifth of all minerals prod
their great mines in America and elsewhere.

This was the king's or the priest's perquisite, indepe
any coinage laws mentioned. This sacerdotal, semi-roy
under the old empires was, of course, an exceedingly
class, and its estates were exempt from taxation long
Joseph's advent in Egypt; and, as in his time, so to this
all lands including our own, the bulk of the property
sacerdotal, semi-royal class escapes taxation, by their
method of financiering. In the time of Louis XV. in
(1774 A. D.) the clergy owned one fifth of all the land in
the Abbot of St. Germain des Près alone owning nine l
thousand acres. The capital of the clergy, according t
amounted to four billion francs, yielding an income of
dred million; to which was added an hundred and twen
millions of annual tithes, besides the church collecti
gifts. If put in the money of to-day, it would be tw
sum. Taine says: "Three hundred and ninety-nine m
Premontre estimate their revenue at more than a millio
and their capital at forty-five millions. The Provincia
Dominicans of Toulouse admits for his two hundred an
six monks, 'more than two hundred thousand livres, n
nue, not including the convent and its enclosure; als
colonies, real estate, negroes, and other effects valued at
millions.' The Benedictines of Cluny, numbering two l

nd thirty-eight, enjoy a revenue of 1,800,000 livres. Those of aint Maur, numbering sixteen hundred and seventy two, estinate the movable property of their churches and houses at 4,000,000 livres, and their net revenue at 8,000,000, 'without ncluding that which accrues to Messieurs the abbots, and priors ommendatory,' which means as much and perhaps more. om Rocourt, abbot of Clairvaux, has from three hundred thouand to four hundred thousand livres income; the Cardinal e Rohan, archbishop of Strasburg, more than a million. In ranche-Comte, Alsace, and Roussillon the clergy own one half f the territory; in Hainaut and Artois, three quarters; in ambresis, one thousand four hundred plow acres out of one housand seven hundred. Almost the whole of LeVelay belongs o the Bishop of Puy, the Abbot of La Chaise-Dieu, the noble hapter of Briond, and to the seigniors of Polignac. The canons f St. Claude in the Jura are the proprietors of twelve thousand erfs or mainmorts."

Hence it is seen that these saviors of the people were also, in omparatively modern times, exceeding well to do. Beside his, at the last date named, the nobility of France also owned ne fifth of the real estate of the country, and the king and the ommunes, another fifth. Their possessions, like the ancient acerdotals, included by far the richest and best lands and roperties of France, "the large and handsome buildings, the alaces, castles, convents, and cathedrals, and almost all the aluable movable property, such as furniture, plate, objects of rt—the accumulated masterpieces of centuries."

The same was true of the old world dignities. The other wenty-six millions of the people of France, to whom had been ft two fifths of the land and a moiety of the property of the ountry, had to support, after the ancient manner, the king, e state, the nobility, and the clergy, by a taxation that was armed out to a set of extortioners, after the Oriental method, ut from this taxation both the clergy and the nobility were

exempt. So it is not wonderful, that, as men's minds grew, there came at length in France, a day of reckoning, called a Revolution.

A similar sequestration of property in the hands of the specially privileged few broke down all the states of antiquity, and is now rapidly disintegrating most of the modern kingdoms of the world. This control of the currency in the old times led, of course, to a rapid absorption of property by the classes just named; and the effort made by them to get the metals out of which to form the currency of the people led to deeds of horror that would scandalize hell. Who can read, unmoved, the accounts of the awful butcheries of those old kings and potentates, led on, as they often were, by the priests, in their effort to rob the victims of their gold? Who is not touched with pity at the tale of Diodorus (137 B. C.), of the unhappy wretches torn from their homes and laden with chains, thrust into the mines, horribly beaten, with no rest or respite day or night, guarded by soldiers (chosen from those who could not understand their speech), compelled till death mercifully claimed them, to toil in darkness, dampness, and filth, ever searching for the gold wherewith their masters were wont to decorate themselves, or, coining it, to filch an added gold piece from the hinds who tilled the fields, or toiled on the seas? According to Polybius forty thousand slaves were thus employed in the mines of New Carthage alone, in Spain, under the Roman rule. Who can read the fearful accounts of the pillage at the king's command of South America (1523 A. D. to 1812 A. D.), of its gold and silver for the enriching of St. Peter's and the Spanish crown, without shuddering? Natives hunted with bloodhounds, manacled, thrust naked into the frozen mines of the Andes, and driven with the lash until death came to relieve them,—the price of a living man being then three sheep, of a woman and child, a sheep and a lamb, and the number of the corpses of these poor slaves so vast as to breed a

estilence! In one mining district of New Spain, Father Motomia tells us that for a mile and a half around it, and for most f the way to it, one could not step unless upon the dead bodies r bones of men, over a hundred thousand of the Christianized ndians, not to mention the uncounted millions of the heathen oth Indians and negroes, having been butchered or enslaved in he mad hunt for gold and silver to enrich the king, his nobles, nd the church, until the very name of the Spaniard was a detestation, a horror, and a curse over all the western continent.

That unlucky Indian who in 1545 A. D., while chasing a wild nimal, caught at a bush to help himself up the mountain, and, ulling it out by the roots, disclosed a piece of silver, was the nwitting occasion of the torture and death of millions of his ace, who henceforth were compelled to toil in those Potosi nines—whose yield to the present time is estimated to be about ight hundred million dollars, or twice that of the Comstock nines of the United States.

Yet another fact is to be noted concerning those old-time inanciers. Mines of gold or silver cannot be found at pleasure nor can they be made to yield at pleasure. Indeed, it is very doubtful if they have ever paid anyone save those who have chanced to be able to control their output; and the old financiers took care to secure that, first, by making the coinage of money a prerogative solely of the pontifico-royal class as noted: secondly, by arbitrarily fixing the money ratio. In India for nearly two thousand years it was, as already said, 6½ to 1; n China and its seaport towns in Marco Polo's time (1290 A. D.) was 4 and 10 to 1 (the latter at seaports), and in early Rome Julius Cæsar's time, 9 and 10 to 1. Cæsar's plans, matured r Augustus, made the ratio 12 to 1 throughout the whole Roman empire, and this ratio was maintained for over one thousand four hundred years, or until the downfall of the empire by the capture of Byzantium (Constantinople) by the Moslems in 1453 A. D.

These gold coins were to be struck only by the Emperor, and were made the only full legal tender of the entire empire. Silver coins were also struck by the Emperor, and under him and by his sanction only, silver coins might be struck by the subject kings, and municipalities, and by the proconsuls in time of war, to make use of the great sums of silver captured, with which to pay the soldiers and other expenses of the campaigns. These silver coins were local (save those of the Emperor), and in certain cases they were not legal tender. The Roman Senate (creature of the Emperor) alone could strike bronze coins, the currency being of gold, silver, and bronze. The imperial taxes, and all the tributes that were levied, were payable only in the imperial gold coins, or else in exactly twelve times their weight in silver ones, purity for purity, so that it was a matter of small concern to the treasury what variations in the silver coinage of the empire might be made. Always and everywhere the coinage of gold ceased when Rome captured a country. The immense overland trade of the East came to her, either by the great overland routes through central and southern Asia, or by way of the Red sea and Egypt, and the Roman hierarchy bought silver in Europe at their established ratio of 12 to 1 in gold, and then bought gold in India and the East at its ratio of 4 and 6 to 1, thus making a cent for cent profit for more than twelve hundred years.

In Pliny's time, he tells us, the Indian trade alone took from fifty to a hundred million *sesterces* of silver from Rome per annum. A similar arrangement enriched the Dutch and Portuguese financiers in the seventeenth century, when they took from Japan five hundred and fifteen millions of gold and silver, Japan rating silver higher than gold, the ratio being 8 to 1. A century earlier, when the Portuguese Albuquerque captured Goa (1510 A. D.) he found in use in southern India, the gold *hun* stamped with the boar,—emblem of Vishnu's incarnations. —which coin corresponded in weight and fineness to the Arabian

isar, while their silver *bargan* was an exact counterpart of the Arabian *dirhem*, ten of the latter being equal in value to one of the former, their ratios being 6 and 7 to 1. Albuquerque thereupon issued a coinage of gold and silver and copper, bought up the Indian gold, when he could not plunder it, shipped it to Portugal, and made a neat cent for cent profit, the ratio in Portugal then being 11 and 12 to 1.

The Dutch financiers followed his example, and likewise became exceedingly wealthy, and the East India Company's financiers in 1620 A. D., with the consent of the native kings, began striking the idolatrous coins of India, at an immense profit to the company's exchequer.

As another illustration of the way the earlier financiers amassed wealth, may be mentioned this scheme of Edward VI. of England, who in 1550 A. D. (time of the Puritans in England) raised the value of his silver coins, then largely the currency, to 5.15 to 1 of gold, so making a profit to his treasury of one hundred and thirteen and one-half per cent. The next year he raised the ratio to 4.82 to 1, at a profit of one hundred and twenty-eight per cent., and the following year he raised it 2.41 to 1, at a profit of three hundred and fifty-six per cent. As a natural result the gold left the country, whereupon the king applied to that famous financier, Thomas Gresham, for a loan of money. Gresham pleaded his inability to comply, but shrewdly added that he thought he might get it at Antwerp. Thither the king sent him, and there Gresham prudently remained (being of course unable to get the loan) until the king's death in 1553 A. D.; meanwhile, he courteously reminded his lord, from that safe point, of what he had not dared to say when in England, to wit: that the king's bad money had driven out the good; a truth old as the world twenty centuries before him, as Theognis testifies when he declared, "Nor will anyone take, in exchange, worse when better is to be had."

This Gresham served, successively, Mary and also Elizabeth

as financial minister, and was knighted by the latter so
for his services. In 1603 A. D. the value of all copper an
coins in Spain was doubled by law, and again doubled
reign of Philip IV. During the reign of Philip V., 1700
A. D., the floating debt of Spain was funded, and Sam
nard, a noted financier and the richest banker then in
was compelled to exchange twenty millions of deman
that he held against Spain for that amount of unma
stock, which caused his failure, and brought about th
in Europe of 1714 A. D. This action of the king brough
revolution in South America in 1732 A. D., whereupon the
Spain, by decree of 1736 A. D., took from the mines th
but one tenth of the silver and one twentieth of the gold,
of one fifth net as heretofore noted, until in 1810 A. D. t
lution in South America ended the rule of Spain ov
mines, and none too soon,—for that once richest silver
on the globe (the Argentines), whose mines have add
than a thousand millions of dollars to the world's stock
and gold, is now one of the poorest of lands, and pr
bankrupt, having been completely plundered by the
for their unholy profits.

Following hard on the downfall of the Roman emp
the ending of the long reign of the Basilius over gold an
came a time of great confusion and distress in monetary
throughout Europe, for almost every petty king and
hastened to express his freedom by striking coins of his
course with much variation of fineness and purity an
The Pontificate of Rome sought to take up the fallen m
scepter, but the kings would not have it so, and we
several ways. And so on midsummer day (1237 A. D.), Fr
II. of Germany assembled, at Vancouvers, the first
council of princes ever held in Europe, and four years l
wrote to Henry III. of England that the affairs of th
were no longer to be monopolized by the priesthood,

proceeded to stamp on the coins he issued the figure of an eagle instead of those of the saints and demigods of the old times.

Boniface VIII. fifty years later sought to dissuade Philip the Fair of France from striking coins, and so wrote him claiming that worthy as "a subject both in spirituals and temporals," whereupon the doughty knight replied, "We give your foolship to know that in temporals we are subject to no person." So likewise Waldemar, king of Denmark, wrote to Gregory XI., who had threatened him with excommunication for his like offenses: "We hold our life from God, our kingdom from our subjects, our riches from our parents, and our faith from thee, the which if thou wilt not grant it to us any longer, we do by these presents resign. Farewell."

And so the long, bloody, and disastrous reign of the gods and the saints over money began to come to an end, albeit not before John Lackland (John XIV.) of England had begun to tax monasteries, and levy on the abbots, for which the Archbishop of York cursed him, and Pope Innocent III. excommunicated him, and which led to the finding by Archbishop Langdon of a long concealed charter, signed by Henry I.; this the Archbishop now made the basis of a new bill of rights that he drew up, and the barons with drawn swords compelled John to sign it June 15, 1215 A. D., which famous document is known as Magna Charta, the same being the basis of all bills of rights the Anglo-Saxon peoples have since won, whether from kings, or nobles, or hierarchs. In 1262 A. D., Henry III., for the first time in English history, claimed the mines as royal or state property, but was soon bullied out of it by the Pope, and the gold coins he had struck were recalled and melted down. In 1289 A. D., England paid her last tribute money to the Pope, and shortly after Edward I. put in execution his Oriental plan of finance, by forcibly robbing the goldsmiths and Jews of his kingdom of their money, imprisoning the goldsmiths, and horribly torturing and quartering the Jews, and then with their

gold buying bullion and plate by one measure, and coining and selling it by another, thus making forty per cent. per pound sterling, whereby he much enriched his treasury. Another financial operation, productive of grave results, was that of the Emperor Charles V. of Spain, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Germany, and the Netherlands, who, in 1544 A. D., raised the ratio of his gold coins from their then ratio of 9 to 1, to 13½ to 1, which, being the cause of much distress and suffering, the king proceeded to remedy by debasing the silver, so that the ratio stood 10 to 1, and then in 1546 A. D. he suddenly enhanced the gold coins to thirteen and one half times their weights in silver, thus adding nearly fifty per cent. to the value of his gold coins, and reducing silver to two thirds the value it had in 1534 A. D. This measure wrought great disaster to the Netherlands, where silver had been the principal circulating medium, and led to the formation of the Confederation of the Beggars in 1566 A. D., and was a prime cause of the Revolution of 1572 A. D. This same Charles V. gave to his German princes by his famous "Golden Bull" of December 25, 1556 A. D., the right to strike gold coins and to work mines, they having previously boycotted his gold coins and adopted silver.

When these princes struck coins, the army of forgers, especially among the nobles and priests, was greatly multiplied; many of the nobility of France regularly keeping such forgers in their employ, whose business it was to counterfeit the German ducats, thalers, and florins,—the king of France himself (Charles IX., the Bloody) being an expert forger, and spending much of his spare time in the high business.

In 1574 A. D. the first paper money was issued at Leyden, during the war, the same being round white pasteboard disks one and one half inches in diameter, stamped or embossed to resemble a coin, with the motto, "God save Leyden," on one of its sides. Leather had frequently been used as money, stag skins a foot square being so used by the Emperor Woote of the

Han dynasty in 140–117 B. C., and were again issued by the Emperor Heen-tsung of China 806 A. D. Ruric the Goth issued stamped leather as money at Novgorod 862–879 A. D., and Edgar, King of Wessex, England, in 959–975 A. D., ; Olaf I. of Norway in 998 A. D. ; Philip I. of France (leather with silver nails) in 1060–1103 A. D. ; the Doge Michilli of Tyre in 1122 A. D. ; William the Bad of Sicily in 1154 A. D. ; John of England in 1215 A. D. ; Louis IX. of France in 1226 A. D. ; Frederick II. of Milan, 1235 A. D. ; Edward I. of England in 1285 A. D. ; and John II. of France in 1364 A. D.

Lycurgus, 884 B. C., made iron the money of Sparta, and purposely so heavy as to require a cart and two oxen to draw a hundred dollars, and a large room in which to store it, and, according to Plutarch, that country was never so prosperous as under that financiering !

Tin has frequently been used as money, as also lead (the latter is now in use in Burmah), porcelain, and shells, and cloth and dried fish, all within historic times. There are in existence bell-shaped and knife-shaped coins of Chinese origin, supposed to have been in use in the days of Noah. Such a bell-shaped coin was found in the Swiss lake dwellings.

Schliemann found six specimens of knife-shaped silver coins under the ruins of the third or burned city of Ilium, on the bed rock beneath Hissarlik.

Baug money (silver) was in use in Egypt in the times of the Shepherd Kings, an inscribed specimen of Kuen-Aten's times having been found at Tel-el-Amarna. Also baug money of iron was early used in Europe before Cæsar's time.

Some of our modern features of financiering as well as that of our money-mediums are very old. Indorsement and bills of exchange were in use in Babylon before the time of Nebuchadnezzar, and in India and China much earlier. They were in common use in Pontus and Greece 400 B. C., and in Rome and Athens before Cicero's day. Great bankers were existing also

in Greece and Rome in his time. Many of our preser banking establishments originated under special conditi

For instance, the great house of the Rothschilds, fou: Meyer Anselm Rothschild, owed its prosperity to the f: when, in 1806 A. D., the French army invaded Hesse obliging the Elector William to flee, William deposit Mr. Rothschild, then doing a small business as ba Frankfort, five millions of dollars for eight years, witho est or security other than the integrity of the banke large sum Mr. Rothschild invested very judiciously and and afterwards his heirs, paid the Elector an annual in two per cent. on the sum, until in 1823 A. D., the princi repaid to William's heir.

So also the great wealth of Stephen Girard, of the fir of George Peabody, and of many others was due to tl pected vicissitudes of the United States wars of 1812 a that enabled them literally to pile up gold and securities the necessities of the government.

Of the two greatest banking institutions of Europe, t of England and the Bank of the Netherlands, the latter the older, if the original Bank of Amsterdam, founde A. D. be considered. This bank grew out of the financi tions of Charles V. spoken of above. At the breakin the war in the Netherlands, in 1572 A. D., gold was dem in that country. In 1609 A. D., the buccaneers were abr the immense trade of the Dutch with the East already to had begun, and in that year, 1609 A. D., private person the Bank of Amsterdam in imitation of the Bank of Ve of the Wessel bank that some Jewish bankers had se years previously. At length this company prevailed u city to forbid Jews dealing in exchange, and this ba monopolized the business, and received all gold coins on according to their market rate in the city marts in Sol and all kinds of silver coins on deposit according to

they contained measured by the Sols-banco (twenty to a florin), and so, for the first time in the world, established ited coinage of gold and silver as metals not as money. "free coinage" caused an immense influx of gold and and a rise in prices, and caused that strange kind of ation known as the "tulip mania," which continued until oinage of silver florins was stopped in 1648 A. D., when lual coinage was limited to gold ducats, which then had al value in Holland. This bank had a vast influence hout the commercial world, and was greatly praised by Smith in 1776 A. D., albeit, at that very time, its adminis- were secretly loaning bullion, belonging to its depositors te holders, to such an extent that a few years thereafter sury was empty and it became insolvent, owing thirty- nillion florins in 1794 A. D.

present (new) Bank of the Netherlands was founded in D., with a capital of twenty million florins, and is nearly Bank of England's plan. Although a private institution, the right to strike coins for the state, to issue circulating to discount bills, to loan money, and to deal in bullion reign coins, and it adopted early, 1816 A. D., what is as the double standard; but, when union with Belgium lace, individual gold coinage was stopped, and that of lual silver coinage resumed. After Belgium separated, oins again circulated in Holland, until the increased of gold in Russia induced the bank to argue for the etization of gold once more, which being done in 1847 he gold coins were in 1850 A. D. (according to Del Mar) down and sold, at a loss to the government of ten s of florins, and a loss to the Dutch people of ten nd millions of florins! In 1873 A. D., its officials took tage of the Nevada silver output to work up another ," and they now argued that gold alone was a fit metal to te as money, and suspended individual coinage of silver,

making gold the only basis, and this again to their enrichment. In 1884 A. D. the bank was authorized to sell to the extent of twenty-five millions of florins at market whenever it shall suit its purpose, so that it practically c the market as coin broker as well as a banking institutio

The Bank of England, a private corporation, pr originally by a Scotchman, Mr. William Patterson, a mer was established by charter of King William III. in 169 and, as said above, is very largely a counterpart of that Netherlands, its operations being too well known for rep here. Its capital now amounts to fourteen million five dred and fifty-three thousand pounds, or over seventy-tw ion dollars. When silver was demonetized in England i A. D., there was added twenty-five per cent. to its capita the profits hitherto made. The bank is guarded at nigh military force. Its notes are made legal tender to ever in England, except itself. It has branches in the large mercial towns, transacts the whole business of the Britis ernment, and allows no interest on deposits. It has s times since its origin suspended payment of its notes issu one instance for twenty-four years (1797 A. D.).

The solution of the currency problem is a thing greatly desired, if the people are ever to be rescued from the gras policies of the usurers, whether ancient or modern, wl their incessant manipulations of the measures of value money have so mercilessly robbed them. Says A. De (Hist. Mon. Sys. p. 356–7): "The emperor of Rome cont the emissions of European money for thirteen centurie the kings and dukes for nearly four centuries afterward; the usurers have held it to the present time, for abou centuries. It is not too much to say that, during the centuries, greater monetary changes have been made, an losses have been occasioned to the industrial classes European world, than by all the degradations and debas

the imperial and regal period put together. Monetary ems have been changed from gold to silver, from silver gold, and from both silver and gold to paper; tens of usands of worthless banks have been erected; thousands millions of worthless notes have been issued, and the entire ducts of industry have been seized, and perverted to the ichment of a class who know only how to scheme, to under-ne, and to appropriate the earnings of mankind. The right issue money needs a radical reform, and the state which orms it first will secure for its citizens far greater advantages an can be derived from zollvereins, tariff bills, or any other id of legislation."

In the battle now on between the advocates of gold and silver r currency, and the specious arguments used by both as to the dundancy of either of those money metals, it may be well to ll attention to Baron von Humboldt's pregnant statement: Any increase in the production which our imagination could ll into existence would appear infinitely trifling compared th the accumulations of thousands of years now in circula-n, especially when we consider the small proportion coined o money, and the large proportion absorbed in the arts Fluctuations of Gold," 1838).

According to the tables given by Del Mar in 1700 A. D., the umulations of gold and silver then in the world amounted to thousand nine hundred and sixty millions of dollars, of ich one thousand four hundred and eighty-five millions was coins, and one thousand four hundred and seventy-five lions, or nearly fifty per cent., in the arts, or lost, or rded, or exported to Asia and practically lost. One hundred rs later, 1800 A. D., the accumulations had doubled, while the k of coins was but little increased, being fifteen hundred lions, the consumption in the arts, etc., having risen to four isand five hundred millions, or seventy-four per cent. Fifty rs later, 1850 A. D., the accumulation is given at eight thou-

sand three hundred and seventy-five millions, the stock o being two thousand millions, and the consumption in th etc., six thousand three hundred and seventy-five milli seventy-six per cent. In 1894 A. D., the accumulation is as seventeen thousand three hundred and sixty millio stock of coins being three thousand seven hundred an millions, and the consumption in the arts, etc., thirteen sand six hundred and ten millions, or seventy-eight per c the whole.

At present each country has a currency and system own, there being no such thing now nor ever as an interna currency, or international system. In the United States cr the corner stone of the financial system, there never being enough to take its place, credit doing ninety per cent. of th ness of the country. The great civil war of our country, resulted in the liberation of five millions of slaves, was car by such fiduciary or credit money, viz., "greenbacks," tha issued solely by the government. Indeed, all the great ings of humanity for greater freedom have been carried such credit moneys. The Spartans won their liberty b iron discs of Lycurgus, previously mentioned. Before t of Alexander, the Athenians won a great struggle, and r tated the Republic by a greatly overvalued copper cu The early Romans issued a much overvalued coin, a that was controlled solely by the state, whereby they w to throw off the yoke of the kings. The Novgorod Rep Europe issued its leather money, and by it defied the hierarchy; later the Scandinavian revolution under G Vasa was carried on by those famous "klippings" issue state; and Gustavus Adolphus saved the cause of Pro ism from being blotted out by Ferdinand the Cath means of the greatly overvalued copper *rundstyks*, l issued by the state, albeit a hundred years later, that cel financier of Sweden, the Baron Goertz, was beheaded f

ng to save the credit of Queen Ulrica Elenora by a copper currency, which his adversaries called a design to "ruin public credit with imaginary money"! The money of the Dutch Revolution to a great extent consisted of the "pasteboard money" of Leyden already described.

The American Revolution was won by the paper money of the Continental Congress, and the French Revolution by the *assignats* and *mandats* issued by the National Assembly.

What the outcome of the present strife and confusion concerning the currency problem in the United States and Europe will be, no man can yet foretell.

The United States, while having but one twenty-fourth of the population of the world, and but one sixth of that of Europe, and being but a century and a quarter old, has nevertheless become the greatest nation of the world in point of finance, it having a banking capital in the year 1890 of over five thousand one hundred millions of dollars, as against the combined nine thousand eight hundred millions of Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Australia, Italy, Russia, Spain, and Canada, as given for that year; these countries being here named in the order of their banking capital, Great Britain being first with forty-five hundred millions banking capital, or nearly as much as all the capital of all these other countries first named if put together.

The United States has also become the wealthiest of all nations, it having nearly one third as much wealth as all of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, Italy, Spain, Australia, Belgium, Holland, Canada, Sweden, Roumania, and "The Argentina," they being also named in the relative order of their wealth, Great Britain leading with forty-eight thousand millions of dollars, as against the sixty-five thousand millions of the United States in the year 1891.

The receipts (i. e., business done) at the national banks of the United States amount to over ten thousand millions of dol-

lars a year, ninety-one per cent. of all such business transactions being done by bank checks and drafts, and but nine per cent. for cash. In the New York city banks, ninety-eight per cent. of all business is done on such credit certificates, two per cent. only being in cash or coins. Of course with less than four thousand millions of dollars of gold and silver money in circulation in the entire world it is impossible for the world's business to be carried on upon a strictly cash (i. e. coin) basis, and banks are a necessity.

In the United States the total amount of all the gold, silver, and copper coin in circulation is now but about six hundred million dollars, while the total of all the gold and silver and copper coins in circulation, and of that held by all of the banks of the United States to secure their notes, of that in the United States Treasury, and the value also of all the bullion in the United States Treasury, if added, is now but two thousand three hundred millions of dollars. During the last two hundred years, the stock of gold and silver in Europe and America has increased sevenfold (the United States adding $3,310,186,769 to it since the year 1840), yet the stock in coins is now but three times what it was in the year 1700, there being at the present time eleven times as much gold and silver consumed in the arts, and exported to Asia and practically lost to Europe and America, as was consumed two centuries ago, and it is constantly on the increase; so that to facilitate the exchanges, the world's business must be done by currency certificates rather than by coins. But upon what such certificates shall be based, whether wholly upon gold or upon gold and silver, is the question.

India, which exclusive of Burmah is as large as all of Europe and has within a hundred millions as many people as all Europe cannot have its present copper and silver coinage demonetized without absorbing all the gold now in sight, and shaking every financial institution in Europe and America to its center, a condition, if not a catastrophe, it may be well for financiers to consider

ıe United States is just now trying one of its very numer-
xperiments in finances, the problem being how to pay in
the balance that remains of its nearly four thousand mil-
of war debts, contracted when silver as well as gold was a
tender in the country, it having since the war demone-
silver, thereby doubling the value of gold over silver.
debt is borrowed money, and money borrowed must be
d as well as goods when bought on time, but the terms of
tract ought not to be changed without the consent of all
es thereto, and it is contended that by the demonetization
lver since the debt was contracted, the terms are changed,
ly to the advantage of the money lender and to the fur-
burdening of the people, who must by taxation pay the
hence the present strife in American politics.

ıe exigencies, real or supposed, of the late civil war, brought
; a most radical change in the financial system of the
d States. Without here recounting the previous financial
lients that bankers and politicians had devised up to the
1860, suffice it to say that at that time the currency was
ded in the main by state banks, of which there were in
sixteen hundred, under various state laws, and out of
e hundred and thirty such banks in eighteen of the then
s, "one hundred and forty were broken, two hundred and
-four closed, and one hundred and thirty-one worthless.
were in existence at that time, three thousand kinds of
d notes, seventeen hundred varieties of spurious notes,
hundred and sixty varieties of imitation, and over seven
red of other kinds more or less fraudulent. The various
of genuine bills in circulation were about seven thousand.
se who tampered with the notes were as industrious as
the bank officials in putting them into circulation, one
t expect by the law of chance to find that, out of every
n notes in circulation, five had been tampered with,
that only six were genuine: but even the genuine ones

were at par only near their respective places of issue.
[J. K. Upton.]

On February 25, 1863, Congress passed what is known as the National Bank Act, the provisions of which were largely taken from the banking statutes of the state of New York, and which plan, the then Secretary of the United States Treasury, Salmon P. Chase, had urged upon Congress for two years. The principal currency features were that thirty per cent. of the capital stock of the proposed banks should be paid in before the bank could begin business. The association organizing a bank "must transfer and deliver to the United States Treasury interest-bearing bonds of the United States in amount not less than one third of the capital stock paid in, whereupon it was entitled to receive from the Comptroller of the Currency" (an officer created by the act) "circulating notes of various denominations in blank, but registered and countersigned at the department, equal to ninety per cent. of the current value of the bonds, but not exceeding their par value. The whole amount of circulation authorized was $300,000,000, of which one half was to be apportioned according to population, the other half according to the then existing banking capital, resources, and business of the states, territories, and the District of Columbia. To reimburse the expense of the government in preparing the notes a tax of two per cent. per annum was imposed upon the amount of the circulation of the associations, in lieu of all other taxes upon the notes and the security bonds.

"The notes were made receivable in payment of all dues to the United States, except duties on imports, and payable in satisfaction of all demands against the United States, except interest on the public debt. Every association was required to have on hand at all times in lawful money of the United States a sum equal to twenty-five per cent. of the aggregate of its outstanding circulation and deposits. No association was to pay out or put in circulation, the notes of any bank or banking

association, which should not be receivable at the time at par, in deposit or in payment of debts due the association paying out or circulating them; nor could it circulate the notes of any association which did not at that time redeem its notes in the lawful money of the United States. Provision was also made for the conversion of state banks into these associations." The act was subsequently amended, January 3, 1864, that "There was to be no restriction as to the distribution of the circulation, the aggregate amount, however, to remain at $300,000,000. The tax on circulation was reduced to one half of one per centum semi-annually, and a tax was imposed upon the deposits, and upon the capital stock in excess of the amount represented by bonds pledged to secure the circulating notes. Any association wishing to close its business could deliver to the Treasurer of the United States, lawful money to the extent of its outstanding notes, and be entitled to receive therefor the return of the bonds pledged for their security. By subsequent legislation, changes have been made so that the banks can at the present time receive of circulating notes but ninety per centum of the par value of the pledged bonds, and they are not otherwise restricted as to the limit or distribution of their circulation. In lieu of any reserve for circulation every bank is now required to keep in the Treasury of the United States five per centum of the amount of its circulation; and the Treasurer is required to redeem therewith any notes of the bank presented for that purpose. If the bank issuing the redeemed notes is still doing business, new notes are issued to it in lieu of those redeemed and destroyed, and the five per cent. fund must be reimbursed to that extent.

"Every bank can also at its discretion decrease the amount of its circulation by depositing with the Treasurer of the United States, legal tender notes to the amount of the reduction contemplated. The Treasurer, upon the receipt of the deposit, returns to the bank a corresponding number of its

security bonds, and redeems the notes of the bank to the e: of the deposit, when they come into his possession.

"No limit is fixed as to time during which the not banks which have closed business must be presented fo demption, and, as a result, many notes will be worn ou otherwise destroyed, and will never be presented for red tion. No provision as to the disposition of the fund prov for the redemption of such destroyed notes has been m The fund deposited with the Treasurer for the redemptio notes of banks which have failed, gone into liquidation, or reducing circulation, reaches at times nearly fifty million lars. This amount, whatever it may be, lies idle in the Tr ury vaults.

"Of this system of circulation, much good can be said. holder of a national bank note has ever lost a cent through failure of the bank issuing it, nor has he been subjected vexatious discount in passing it. Everywhere, throughout country, the note passes at par, and no scrutiny is require ascertain the place of its issue. Counterfeit issues are al unknown, so rare, indeed, that no one takes any precautio guard against them. There is no monopoly in the sys Ten persons in any city having less than twenty thou inhabitants can organize a bank by contributing five thou dollars each, one half down, the remainder in easy installm and have whatever profits they can find in issuing circul notes." [J. K. Upton, Money in Politics, pp. 119–125.]

On the first day of July, 1865, Congress imposed a tax per cent. upon the amount of all issues of all state banks, the result that their circulating notes were all driven out they ceased business as banks of circulation. Six kin banks now do business in the United States, viz., the nat banks just mentioned, the national gold banks (on Pacific c state banks, savings banks, trust companies, and private b all save the first two under state laws. These private l

d all others, both in the amount of their capital and of iness. The largest capital invested in business by any bank of New York city is $5,000,000, while there are n a half dozen private banks in that city having a f over $10,000,000 each. The total capital of all the and state banks clearing through the New York clear- does not exceed $134,000,000, while that of the private nounts to over $402,000,000. The per cent. system of n the United States, while better than any previous country has ever tried, is yet far from perfect, and lans are now being proposed by the bankers and polit- rs for its betterment, but what the result will be no yet forecast. If human greed could but be supplanted eousness, the currency problem would speedily be

THE BUSINESS WORLD.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF COMMERCE AND TRADE.

COMMERCE is now the great peacemaker amon nations, and trade the mighty instrument o modern civilization. But for trade mankind soon degenerate into savagery.

Trade is the utilizing of the product of the diverse fa and gifts of man, whereby one individual can the more s perform one kind of work, or make one sort of thing another yet a different one, which things they interch their mutual pleasure or advantage. This mutual interc ing brings what is called trade. Where this interchange possible or not desired, the incentive to produce, save f barest necessities, is gone, and humanity deteriorates b force of isolation, it not being designed that men should alone. Trade greatly promotes the growth of the hum telligence, and also largely develops the better elements moral nature. The first is self-evident; the latter is m by the fact that the contentious, the dishonest, or the in trader is speedily driven out of business by his fellows, l experience having shown that trade must have peace, and honor, if it would survive. It cannot long exist amo litigious, nor among cheats or liars. When interchang into the hands of such men, it is no longer trade but ro Such was the business of most of the ancients. Such i of the business of modern times.

Commercial Progress.

:ade is old. It is coeval with the beginnings of the human
While there is no present means of knowing how exten-
trade was in the remote ages of mankind, yet the few
ıt records of those cradle-lands of mankind, Chaldea, India,
Egypt, show an inland trade of some volume, existing
to the days of Abraham. In Genesis xxiii. : 16, we have an
ınt of that patriarch weighing out in payment for the field
›hron the Hittite, "four hundred shekels of silver, current
:y with the merchant," an incident showing that land was
as now held as property; that domestic and intertribal
was in vogue; and that silver was in use as a money
l for exchange, its mining and smelting for such purpose
; of course implied. A century and a quarter later when
›h was sold to a company of Ishmaelites "from Gilead, with
camels, bearing spicery and balm and myrrh, going to carry
wn to Egypt," an international trade existed, and men and
en were capture[illegible]d sold as commodities, a mode and a
ition of trade [illegible] to a limited extent in the Orient.
ıt it is not [illegible] 600 to 1000 B. C. that we meet
the first ar[illegible]aritime commerce, such
being carri[illegible] Phœnicians, those
ent philistines, wi[illegible] early homes
ıe Israelitish invasion [illegible] along the
rn coast of the Mediterra[illegible] Sidon and
, the two great maritime cities o[illegible]es. These
nicians were an intellectual, enterpri[illegible] and early
›lished settlements on the coasts of Ara[illegible]nd on the
ds of Crete and Cyprus and Sicily and Sardinia, and on
oasts of Spain and North Africa, particularly at Carthage
ts vicinity, from which latter city they ruled the seas for
seven centuries, until the final destruction of Carthage by
Romans under Scipio in 146 B. C. These Phœnicians traded
Britain and the coast people of the Baltic Sea, and made
lar voyages to India (Ophir) via the Red Sea, and are said

to have made at one time a cruise of three years, circumnav ing Africa, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and returni Carthage via the Pillars of Hercules (Gibraltar), some eig centuries before Vasco da Gama had doubled Good Hope A. D., and proved to Europe the existence of a water route Indies.

Sidon was founded by and named after Zidon, the first of Canaan, Noah's grandson. Ahab's wife, the infamous bel, was the daughter of one of its later kings. It has times been captured and re-captured, its ancient mar supremacy being largely destroyed 351 B. C., when the cit taken by the Persians for having rebelled against Artaxerxe at which time forty thousand of its inhabitants are said to set fire to their homes and perished therein. It has been rebuilt, and had an extensive trade in the days of Christ still survives as the Turkish town of Saida, with a populati some seven thousand souls, and has yet a lingering comm namely of silk, cotton, and nutgalls. It is interesting as perhaps the very oldest sea trading port in the world.

Of Tyre nothing remains but ruins. The prophet E gives a graphic sketch of the vast commerce and riches c city 572 B. C. Alexander the Great took it 332 B. C., after a months' siege, and burned the city, selling thirty thousand inhabitants as slaves. It was rebuilt, and, in the days o ome, 385 A. D., had a commerce extending to all parts known world, it being for many centuries, because of its commerce and riches, the England of the ancient world present condition is a strange and wonderfully minute f ment of the ancient prophet's words concerning it. In the year that Scipio destroyed Carthage, 146 B. C., Mummius another great commercial city of the Levant, Corinth demolished it, and fifty years later Sylla captured Athen ruined it, and yet a half century later Aurelian blotted o horrible massacres that remaining greatest trading ci

e East, Palmyra, then greater than Rome herself, and Rome ıs the commercial mistress of the world. But the immense ınder of the nations that her conquering legions had carried ıme were consumed in vainglorious pageants and in appeas- g her ever seditious cohorts, and in the vain effort to keep rself from being in turn plundered by the fierce barbarians at swarmed on her borders, so that these great riches of mmerce they had stolen from ancient cities now fertilized lands, improved no industry save that of robbery, and added thing to civilization, and now it was that for nearly thirteen ndred years that great source of wealth and civilization, ·eign commerce, was practically dead in the world.

From the earliest ages, it was the policy of kings, both great d small, to plunder their neighbors of their wealth, with or thout an excuse, generally the latter, the mere possession wealth being considered a sufficient excuse for doing the ındering. And in this also were they not strangely like some ›derns? When they took possession of a country or city, ɜy sought to dry up its streams of wealth by massacring its ɔple or selling them for slaves, and so preventing all manu- ɜturing outside of their own domains. Those much lauded ɜat warriors and conquerors of the old world were simply ɜat freebooters, and, in their task of plundering the wealth ɜy would not earn, they had massacred so many of the wealth ɔducers that, at the death of the Roman emperor Augustus, ɜ population of the world as estimated by Bodio was but fifty- ır millions of people. And for a thousand years later, the ·ord flashed almost incessantly over the earth, so that as late the beginning of the fifteenth century Europe had less than ty millions of population. The plundering of Rome by the ıns and Vandals caused the founding of Venice, whose first ıabitants, leaving their fat lands and inland villages, fled ›m the invader to that isle of the Adriatic, and established a y that soon became to southern Europe what Tyre, Carthage,

Corinth, and Athens had once been, to wit: the carrier of the world's commerce, its ships plying to all known parts for near a thousand years.

The Rialto was then the great exchange for all Europe. The Crusades of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, that almost depopulated and did actually beggar so many other provinces, greatly enriched Venice. Here the first modern bank was founded. Here debts were first funded, and bills of exchange first bought and sold; here bookkeeping was made an art, and finance became a science. The secret arts of Venice also established trade with the Baltic regions and established many trading posts in Germany and Holland, that ultimately grew to be among the most important towns and cities of the Middle Ages. This commercial supremacy in Europe, Venice held for nearly three centuries, or until what time the opening of the route to India turned the channels of trade elsewhere. Her sister cities of Genoa, Florence, and Pisa were also enriched by that strange uprising of Europe, the Crusades, and they became her formidable and at length ferocious rivals in several bloody and bitter wars.

When the Italian Flavio de Gioja introduced to the European world the mariner's compass in 1302 A. D. a mighty impulse was given to the business transactions of men, in that now they ventured forth on the seas instead of hugging all shores as hitherto. Three things are absolutely necessary to all profitable commercial enterprises, namely: adequate means of transportation, security of person and product, and freedom to labor and to exchange products. The inhabitants of the old world sought to secure the first by building their towns and cities on the navigable rivers and, later, on the seacoast. The ancient empires were on the Nile, the Euphrates and Tigris, and later on the Mediterranean coast. Their only other peaceful mode of exchanging products was by the slow, toilsome, and expensive caravan routes, yet in practice in many parts of Asia and Africa. The

ond and third conditions of commerce, the inhabitants of se countries never yet have had save in isolated instances, l then but for a brief period, and so their commerce as com- ed with modern times was always very small.

Five years before Da Gama made his sea passage to the East lies and founded, on the coast of Malabar, the first commer- l colony from Europe, Christopher Columbus, the Genoese ager, had attempted to go thither by sailing due west, and l rediscovered the American continent in 1492. The Por- uese Cabral then landed on the coast of Brazil in 1500, and k possession in the name of his king, and thirteen years er Balboa first saw the Pacific ocean, and four years there- er the Portuguese Magalhaens reached the East Indies, ring rounded South America, and made the first circumnavi- ion of the globe, after a voyage of three years and twenty- e days.

With the opening of the water way to the East, Lisbon be- ne the chief seat of the world's commerce ; and by the con- est, with frightful atrocities, of Mexico by Cortez in 1520, of ru by Pizarro in 1529, and Chili by Almagro in 1535, and by opening of their great mines of gold and silver, the value all commerce underwent a material change throughout rope, and the world's trade was thereupon soon led into other l newer channels, and now the Netherlands, and, later, Eng- ıd, soon became the great centers of commerce and of wealth.

That great mental and moral and political uprising in Europe, lled the Reformation, was begun by Martin Luther in 1517 ; d, a hundred years later, the first permanent settlement in nerica by the English was made, and that opening up of nerica by them was destined two centuries later again to rev- ıtionize the business of the entire world. Great Britain then, ter the manner of the ancients, had interdicted her colonies heavy penalties from engaging in manufactures, seeking to tain their commerce for herself. The colonists, however,

were not legally tied to the soil as under the feudal system then existing in Europe, but they were made wholly dependent industrially upon Great Britain by her restrictive legislation of 1767 and 1774. The exporting of sheep, wool, and woolen yarns from England was forbidden, and an export duty of three shillings four pence was put on every piece of woolen broadcloth. Artisans were also forbidden to emigrate from England, and the transportation of all tools employed in iron and steel manufacturing was interdicted, and tea, glass, paper, etc., heavily taxed in the colonies. The colonies, goaded to desperation by these laws, at length revolted, and, after a bitter war, gained their independence, and then the mother country, fearing more rivalry in her commercial enterprises, further enacted in 1781 a statute, 21 Geo. III., c. 37, in which "it was provided that any person who packed, or put on board, or caused to be brought to any place in order to be put on any vessel for exportation, any machine, engine, tool, press, paper, utensil or implement, or any part thereof, which then was or thereafter might be used in the woolen, cotton, linen, or silk manufacture of the kingdom, or goods wherein wool, cotton, linen, or silk was used, or any model or plan of such machinery, tool, engine, press, utensil, or implement, should forfeit every such machine, etc., and all goods packed therewith, and two hundred pounds, and also suffer imprisonment for one year." In 1782 this was further amended by increasing the penalty to five hundred pounds for exporting, or attempting to export, "books, plates, engines, tools, or utensils used in or which are proper for the preparing or finishing of the calico, cotton, muslin, or linen printing manufactures or any part thereof." And this by a people who had themselves obtained the art of manufacturing from other nations, and had not made that art themselves!

Their first weaver came to London from the Netherlands, in 1385 A. D.; their silk artisans from France in 1560; knives first came into the kingdom in 1563; the making of paper was intro-

duced from Holland in 1588, and the art of making calico came from India in 1631. For two hundred years before England knew how to utilize her raw material, or her people possessed any knowledge of manufacturing, she had been gladly buying her wines, silks, and laces from French artisans, and her linen and woolen fabrics from the Flemish. And now she would fain forbid the child learning what she herself had been taught by others. So selfish are mortals. So hard it is for people to learn that, in enriching others, they enrich themselves; that morality, education, industry, and skill, and not legislative enactments or political pronunciamentos, are the only valid basis for prosperity and trade; that when trade is walled in, whether it be by prejudice or by tumults called strikes, or by wars, or by tariffs (which are nothing in the world but a subtle system of war in times of peace upon the industries and trade of another person or nation to bar out their fabrics), that their trade cannot exert its benign influence over the nations of the world, softening their asperities, modifying their prejudices, and quickening all the better elements of the people.

Spinning and weaving was the most important manufacturing industry among the ancients, and was wholly the work of women and slaves. Up to 1760, spinning was done on almost the identical kind of hand and foot power machines that were in use four thousand years ago. But the invention of the spinning machines of Arkwright and of Hargreaves in 1768, and of the power loom of Cartwright in 1785, furnished the pretext for England to attempt to control the manufactories of the world, and hence her above mentioned laws. Under the old hand or domestic system of weaving, the homes of the common people of England, as of all Europe, were huts or dens of poverty, filth, and squalor. Kings, nobles, and priests practically owned both the wealth and the people who produced it, both in England and elsewhere, down until comparatively recent times, and their many and vainglorious wars have again and again im-

poverished the earth. As an illustration, the vain and cruel ambitions of the Houses of York and Lancaster caused a predatory civil war to rage in England for thirty years. and reduced Scotland to beggary and Ireland to savagery, from which they have not yet recovered, and caused the bloody death of over one hundred thousand people guilty of no crime save that of being owned by the nobility, and this too but seven years before the discovery of America. It is estimated that more people have been slaughtered by war, or have died in direct consequence of such wars, since the creation of man, than would people a dozen worlds with as many inhabitants as are now upon the earth,—and wars, be it noted, that were set in motion not by the toilers of the earth, but by the non-producers, and generally solely for their personal aggrandizement; and even now they do this iniquity, as witness the late Franco-German war. At the present time it costs the people of Europe over a thousand millions of dollars per year to sustain their great military establishments, wherewith they hope to plunder or prevent being plundered.

Since the discovery of America more than a thousand and six hundred millions of dollars of gold and silver has been taken from American mines, the most of which has been flung away by the kings and nobles of Europe, in their mad efforts to butcher their fellows whose opinions did not coincide with their own, while history notes that Spain and Portugal, once wealthy but unjust owners of these rich American mines, are now among the abject of the nations, poor in people, poor in industry, in education and skill, and in all that tends to make a country desirable. "As the partridge that gathereth young which she hath not brought forth, so is he that getteth riches and not by right; in the midst of his days they shall leave him, and at his end, he shall be a fool."

The spinning machine and the power loom mentioned above were at first operated by water power, and only on a large

m, but the invention of the steam engine, in 1769, for man-
turing purposes, at once changed the industrial world and
eforth manufacturers sought the cities and large towns
. Agriculture necessarily scatters the people, who must
here tillage or grazing lands are. On the other hand
ufacture concentrates the people, who must needs be near
work, and it is this concentration of the people into cities
produces business, and multiplies wealth. Sparsely peo-
sections are generally poor.

he present century, above all others known to history, has
a century of inventions, and we are seemingly as yet only
the threshold of inventive genius. Inventions are the
t wealth producers of the world. The mariner's compass
the invention of printing broke the spell of the Dark Ages
off Europe and added more wealth to the world than all the
th that the Roman Empire possessed in all of its palmiest
, in that the one now made the waters of the seas to be
ways of transportation for commerce, and the other by
ging to man the wisdom of other ages and countries broke
fetters from the minds of such as wished to be free, and
dom of mind as well as of body is indispensable to the pro-
ion of much wealth. People held in the thrall of ignorance
superstition are always poor. Freedom to think, freedom
abor, freedom to enjoy the fruits of labor, freedom to
ange the products of labor, are as absolute necessities to
individual and to the nation in order to amass wealth, as
circulation of blood is to the human body. Stop either and
ster must result. Nine tenths of the wealth and business of
ay is due to inventions, largely American inventions.
use of them London is now richer than all England was at
discovery of America. Because of them New York city has
e wealth than all the American colonies possessed at the
of the Revolution and down to the year 1800. Because of
n the United States has accumulated three times as much

wealth during the last thirty years as was accumulated during the two hundred and fifty years of this country's history prior and up to the year 1860, the increase of wealth in the United States having been more than ninefold since the year 1850. Because of them Chicago, that but seventy years ago was only an insignificant Indian trading fort, has now become the greatest railroad center and the largest grain port of the earth, and the sixth city of the world in point of population, doing an annual business that exceeds that of all Europe at the discovery of America.

Because of the mighty volume of business these inventions have engendered, the value of the checks cashed in a single month by the banks of New York and London exceeds in value that of all the gold and silver coins in the world, although they are the accumulation of six thousand years of business enterprises; while the amount of the exchanges of the clearing houses of the United States alone during the past seven years has averaged over fifty-four thousand five hundred millions of dollars per year. Because of them the United States with a population of but twenty-one persons to the square mile, as against the two hundred and thirty-three to the square mile of Germany, the three hundred and twenty of France, the three hundred and fifty of Holland, the five hundred and five of England, and the five hundred and thirty of Belgium, was able to grow in the year 1894 two thousand and five hundred millions of bushels of grain, forty-one and one half per cent. of the wheat being exported, and the country reported the value of its manufactured products for the year 1889 (census 1890) at $9,372,437,283 as against the $20,000,000 of those of the census of the year 1790; it was able also to grow a crop of nine and two thirds millions of bales of cotton in the year 1894, or more than four times that of all the world besides, and more than double that of the year 1860, seventy-one and one-half per cent. being exported; and it reported the yearly value of all its products.

ctured, agricultural, etc., as $12,464,052,913 in the cen-
890, being an annual product of $198 per inhabitant.
ndred million men working by hand could not do the
ow daily performed by machinery in the United States
ot to mention the other nations of the earth. The entire
s of the world has been revolutionized by means of these
ons. The old methods have departed. They can no
be used. Without our century of inventions the world
go back to barbarism. A hundred years ago it required
of hard work on a hand loom to weave forty-five yards
non sheeting. Now a weaver can weave eighty times as
n the same time on one of our modern steam power
es. Before the coming of these inventions, it took the
of thirty-two days of a laboring man to buy a linen
at he can now get with the wages of one day, while of
ther things one can get now by a fourth of a day's wages
ormerly cost the wages of four days to procure.

single illustration of how vastly these multiply wealth,
ted that a single pound of cotton costing seven cents is
ade into chintz that sells for four dollars, and seventy-
ts worth of common iron ore is made into two hundred
d dollars worth of watch springs, or into four hundred
d dollars worth of hair springs, or into two and one
illion dollars worth of pallet arbors. They have also
t a vast increase of totally new industries into being in
iness world, such as the railroad business, the steamship,
graph, telephone, electric lighting, electric railway, and
power business, employing a great multitude of men, the
ailroads alone taking one sixteenth of the population to
m. It is difficult to realize that within the memory of
ds of people now living there was not a steamship nor a
l car, nor a telegraph nor a telephone in the whole world,
el then being done by stagecoach or canal boat, or
conveyance, or by sails on the oceans, whereas the

United States had in operation in 1893, 177,753 miles of steam railroad track, or more than all the rest of the world combined, exclusive of sidings, etc., and has eleven thousand millions of dollars invested in such steam railroads; the cost of the roads and equipments was given as nine thousand five hundred millions of dollars with gross earnings in that year of $1,208,641,498 and net earnings of $358,648,918, the roads having carried 757,464,480 tons of freight, nearly as much as all Europe, and 628,965,973 passengers. The steamboats, usually foreign, now also bring to our ports over a million passengers each year, there being seventy lines of mail steamers now plying the oceans of the world, most of which are foreign lines.

Of telegraph lines in the United States in 1895, there were, exclusive of railroad lines, or government, private, or telephone lines, 189,714 miles of telegraph lines with 802,651 miles of wires as against 233,534 miles of wires in the year 1880, the number of messages sent being fifty-seven millions, and the receipts of the Western Union, the largest corporation, being given in round numbers as twenty-two millions of dollars, and the expenses as sixteen millions. Of ocean telegraphs there were in operation in 1894 one hundred and forty thousand miles, mainly foreign lines.

The Bell Telephone Company and the Long Distance Telephone Company operated in the United States in 1894 an aggregate of 507,600 miles of wire, the Bell and its connected companies representing a capital of ninety-three millions of dollars, and having then 237,186 subscribers. The capital of the Long Distance Company was given as seven and a half million dollars.

The number of business concerns in the United States in 1894 is given as 1,042,202; the number of failures reported, 12,724, or one and one third per cent. of the total, with liabilities of $151,548,520 and assets of $83,215,540. The number of United States banks in 1894 was 3,775, with a capital stock (in round numbers) of six hundred and sixty-eight millions of dollars; the resources

re stated at three thousand four hundred and seventy-three millions of dollars and due depositors one thousand seven hundred and forty-two millions of dollars. The amount of deposits in the savings banks also that year was $1,747,961,289, while the product of the United States gold mines was $35,955,-00 and of the silver mines $77,575,757. The value of domestic merchandise exported in 1894 was $869,204,937, and the value of imports was $654,994,622. Of this latter fourteen and one seventh per cent. was manufactured goods ready for consumption. The late civil war in the United States loaded the country with a debt of nearly four thousand millions of dollars, which debt is now greatly diminished, it having been decreased from $2,773,236,173 in the year 1866 to $812,137,610 in the year 1895. Besides the public debt of the central government, there is a debt of the states, counties, municipalities, and schools, less their sinking funds of $138,255,311, this latter debt being five and a half millions less in 1894 than in 1880.

The population of the United States has increased from 3,929,214 in the census year of 1790 to 68,275,000, in the year 1894. The yearly receipts of the United States, national, state, and local governments combined, including the postal service and the support of the public schools, was given by the United States Treasurer for 1894 as being then $1,040,473,013, and the expenditures by the same as being $915,954,055. Of this sum $145,583,115 was paid for public schools, and $84,324,414 for the support of the postal service.

There has been paid in pensions to the soldiers of the late war, and to their widows and orphans, since the year 1860, the sum of $1,717,275,718, there being in the year 1894, 969,544 pensioners on the rolls of the Pension Bureau at Washington. The capital employed in manufactures in the United States in 1890 is given as $6,525,156,486 and the value of the product manufactured as said above was $9,372,437,283, an increase of five hundred and forty-six per cent. in capital and three hundred and

world—more than three and one fourth mill
being now employed in trade and transportati

The value of the visible and tangible prope
States, now the richest country in the world
census bureau on 1890, was classified as fol
with improvements thereon, $39,544,544,333 ; l
and ranches, farm implements and machine
mines and quarries including product on ha
gold and silver coin and bullion, $1,158,774,9
mills and product on hand raw and manufac
441 ; railroads and equipments, including $28
railroads, $8,685,407,323 ; telegraphs, telephon
canals, $701,755,712 ; miscellaneous wealth,
total at that time of $65,037,091,197, which
increased since the taking of that census as
railroad returns of 1894 above given.

As the use of steam power superseded that
the world and immensely multiplied the wor
wealth, so now the use of electricity promises
new revolution in the industrial world in the

reat question, and no invention of man has yet eliminated it. ndeed, with every advance in methods of business and of nanufacturing and transportation, it is intensified. For while, s noted, these new appliances create new employments, their se demands a new type of skilled laborer, and by displacing, s they do temporarily, some of the old, more or less friction is roduced. For instance the Hoe press and a single skilled ressman will now do in one hour an amount of work that rould otherwise require three months' labor to accomplish, and f course many printers are displaced. But who can estimate he value of that press to the workingman of the world? It has ut within his reach the accumulated wisdom of all ages, on all orts of subjects, so that he can now buy for a few cents information that could only be had by the few learned and wealthy f the world—information, be it noted, that enabled him to become wealthy and learned. Five hundred years ago none but he kings and nobles and priests, in whose hands was the rorld's wealth, could buy a Bible, while books of science were nknown, save to a special few ; now the most humble laborer an own them all, if he will, and become wise and well to do. These appliances have greatly reduced the cost of living, and, by giving the laborer more leisure, have not only added greatly to his intelligence, but have lengthened life on an average of ten years in the United States.

The new methods of husbandry, while greatly multiplying the product of the soil, have also greatly reduced their cost, both to the producer and to the consumer. Corn is now raised at a profit, notwithstanding it can now be bought in the New York market for 46½ cents less per bushel than in the year 1870. Wheat is now 62 cents per bushel less than then, cotton 15.7 cents less per pound, leather 13.4 cents less per pound, kerosene 26.3 cents less per gallon, sugar 8.2 cents less per pound, butter 11.7 cents less, lard 5.6 cents less, cheese 7.8 cents less, ham 6.1 cents less, starch 5 cents less, and so on to the end of the list.

On the other hand, while, at the beginning of this c trade was hampered by statutes borrowed from the Old as to how and when and where, and at what rates it sh performed, so the wages of the workingman was li regulated by law. Most of these restrictions are now l gone, and whereas, in the year 1790, the carpenter had t from twelve to sixteen hours a day for an average of le 60 cents per day, he can now get $3.50 for eight hours o and while the average wages for all kinds of workingm then but 43 cents per day, the average had risen in 1880 per day, and in 1890 to $1.40 per day. Skilled laborers United States in the year 1800 were paid an average of $1 day. In 1895 they were receiving an average of $3.00 p Unskilled labor in the year 1800 was paid an average of 5 per day. In 1895 this average was $1.25 per day.

And yet the business of the United States is being ually interrupted by the ill-advised strikes of the workin greatly to the loss of both parties—a conservative estima ing the loss to workingmen in this country by strikes si year 1881 at $163,807,886, and by lockouts $26,685,516, a to of $190,492,402 to workingmen. Business loss to emplo strikes was $82,590,396, by lockouts $12,235,450, a total loss ployers of $94,825,847, this combined loss being more th the wealth of the whole state of New York in the year

Surely some better and cheaper method of adjustin culties should be devised. While rapid transportation larging so greatly the business and wealth of the worl while the United States, perhaps above all other countries, security of person and product, it is yet necessary to c for the freedom to labor, as against arbitrary trades unio freedom to exchange products as against restrictive Given these three absolute necessities for the accumula wealth, and the United States will long hold her suprem the business world.

WOMAN IN BUSINESS.

ONDERFUL SUCCESS IN THE FIELD OF COMMERCE.

'N 1836 only six occupations were open for women bread-winners, viz., teaching, millinery, sewing, tailoring, factory labor, and domestic service; now over three hundred stand with open arms to receive her contribu- s of hand and brain, and she has been successful in all of n, with new avenues constantly opening. In 1893 four dred applications for patents were made by women. To-day find women active everywhere, in colleges, banks, stores, countinghouses, as clerks and capitalists, managing with inguished success both small and large enterprises.

'rom time immemorial woman has controlled industry and iomy in the home, but not many years have passed since stepped from the home circle into the wider field of man- :tures and public economy. The life of the woman of to-day :rs greatly from that of primitive days. Her work has ergone a transformation. In this age of cheap mechanical ces it is unnecessary for her to make her own candles, soap, h, and bread as did her grandmother. It no longer requires ıy women to do the work of one household.

But the development of manufactures and private economy :ssitates a woman's supporting herself and her family, for an who is earning only the wages of a day laborer cannot t alone. Not only the revolution in manufactures, but her nse desire for independence, has greatly modified woman's lition. These are some of the reasons, and these are some

of the influences, that have been powerful in placing woman so prominently in the industrial occupations of the day. Statistics clearly show that there is scarcely a branch of industry in which she is not employed. The latest bulletin of the census bureau deals with the occupations of the people and discloses a strange sociological condition, which some people, not only conservatives but many also of the more progressive men and women, to use a familiar term, "view with alarm."

According to the report forty-eight per cent. of all persons in the United States over ten years of age are engaged in paying occupations. In other words, the total working force of the nation is, in round numbers, nearly twenty-three millions; of this number, nearly four millions are girls and women. The significant feature of this part of the report is not in this proportion as such—for the number of males engaged in money-making occupations is to females as five to one—but in the fact of the rapid increase of women in the various fields of labor.

During the last decade, 1880–1890, the increase in the number of males in occupation was 27 per cent., of females, 49 per cent. The proportion in cities is, of course, much greater; Chicago, for instance, showing an increase in the number of working women of 263 per cent. The total number of occupations specified is 221; women are enumerated as being engaged in all of these except two; and these are officers and soldiers of the United States army. There is even a woman pilot holding a license from the United States government.

There are among women 300,000 teachers, 1,235 clergymen, 208 lawyers, 888 reporters, 4,555 physicians and surgeons, 37 dentists, 3,949 actresses, 10,810 artists and teachers of art, 2,235 authors, 4,875 in federal, state, and municipal government employ, 58,449 clerks, 22 architects. There are women blacksmiths, roofers, veterinary surgeons, watchmen and detectives, molders, coopers, and butchers. They are in manufacturing, millinery, and printing establishments; they are in paper, shoe,

d leather factories; in cotton, woolen, and knitting mills; in keries, confectioneries, laundries, book binderies; in short, ey are everywhere but in the army and navy. And it is said at a member of the French Chamber of Deputies proposes that ench women be drafted for service in the army just the same men, but that their duties be confined to such work as hos-al service, driving mule teams, and to other work outside e battlefield, for which soldiers are usually detailed; an rangement which would allow all the fighters to be available ien needed.

In studying the report one cannot but wonder what peculiar cumstances impelled 353 women to become miners, 30 to be-me quarrymen, and 32 to work at woodchopping as a means livelihood: 4 women have yielded to the attractive work of e locomotive engineer and fireman, and 29 lead a sailor's life; d notwithstanding the thousands that are enlisted against e liquor traffic, yet this census return shows that 147 bar-nders, 2,275 saloon-keepers, 72 brewers, and 9 distillers are to found among the "better half" of the people!

Very few persons are aware of the great fields of remunera-e employment which have opened to women through the onderful creative genius of Thomas A. Edison, the inventor. s simplification of telegraphy has given employment to thou-nds of operators all over the United States, while in the tele-one business a still greater field has been opened. The natural ill of woman is shown, too, in the readiness with which she es the phonograph and the graphophone. Thousands of ese are in use in this country, where they are employed in mmercial houses and in official bureaus instead of the slower d less accurate shorthand writer. The operator is nearly ways a young woman, usually one who can use the typewrit-g machine. Then in the manufacture of electrical goods, ere are processes, such as the insulating of wires, the putting gether of delicate mechanism and other operations which

ness as a stockholder or partner. Take the rep
Massachusetts ; a state extensively engaged in
In a large number of such concerns, the affai
covered by the reports of the state bureau of la
find that the male partners or stockholders we
and 27,211 in 1893. On the other hand, the n
who had an interest in the manufactories d
report was 16,592 in 1893, and 15,410 in the
In other words, the partners or stockholders in
per cent. of females and 62.52 per cent. of n
year preceding the proportions were 27.56 per
and 63.94 per cent. of males. This change in
that there is a tendency to place more and mo
of the world and especially of the United States
of women.

Not every woman any more than every ma
to assume the management of the affairs of
yet there are numerous instances, some most
when necessity seemed to compel, she has u
things and carried them on most successfully.

as the work of man, that people are beginning to discover
etter cared for when in feminine hands, simply because
en are more willing to listen to and give attention to de-
Such a business is that of caring for property, real estate,
ng, collecting rents; and, in large apartment houses, attend-
o the advertising, hiring and discharging help, and the
ing of books. Miss Bertha Eppstein of Chicago, who has
harge of forty-one flats and some other property near the
er of Indiana avenue and Twenty-second street of that city,
good illustration. She says that she " was left an orphan
a little child " and has been obliged to make her own
She is a born leader and does not succeed well in a sub-
ate position. She has kept books and has done various
things but has found her present work the most congen-
It gives her great pride to say that during the last year,
so many buildings stood empty, not one of her forty-one
remained unoccupied a whole month, and during the busi-
depression she has not lost one per cent. of her gross
pts. She is like the head of a large family, and her tenants
to her as "freely for advice and sympathy concerning a
baby and other family affairs as about leaking steam-pipes
lling plaster." She attributes a large share of her success
e fact that she puts herself in their place, and says : " As
ly as possible I do for them what I would like to have done
yself. I never promise a thing that I do not do, and I see
that the small things upon which the comfort of a family
eatly depends receive attention." Miss Eppstein believes
the work she is doing is admirably suited to the capacity
any women—in fact, that "they would be more successful
most men in renting and caring for flats, from the fact
they are, as a rule, more willing to give attention to de-
than men, and upon such attention the success of large
tment buildings depends." Other women are of similar
ion, consequently we find in a number of our large cities,

travelers. Neither are their efforts confined to
have agents in Florence, Dresden, Berlin, Hamb
and with their competent heads, and earnest, ho
ought to succeed.

Closely akin to this is the work of the architect
must be built before they can be rented and occu
two architects the census reports in these United
lover of statistics says, "one to nearly every lar
Woman's Building at the Columbian Expositic
by Miss Sophia Hayden of Boston, a graduate o
Technology, in the class of 1890. A national co
signs by woman resulted in the choice of Miss
They were universally conceded to be of a very
what in the minds of some would be considered
it was difficult to discover the difference between
work in the same line. Mr. Henry Van Brunt,
Miss Hayden's work, points out that it is "essen
in quality, as it should be. If sweetness and
expressed in architecture, we have it in this
generous offer of a prize to the lady who shall

ry tenement houses. To study the subject thoroughly ssumed the duties of health inspectors, took up their resi- for a while in a very poor tenement district, investigated 'ects and learned the remedies. They are about to build ›man's hotel," with model plumbing and ventilation, and studio building. As a natural result of their work, they ›een elected members of the Woman's Health Protective ation of New York.

ɜ. Flint of New York has undertaken, by means of morn- :tures, illustrated by aid of stereopticon views of the best ɜcture of all ages and places, to enlighten her sisters on bject of architecture. It is by no means a place to study bject, but Mrs. Flint's object is to give information to ɪ about something of which she is generally woefully nt, and to enable her to distinguish between a Doric n Ionic column without reference to a dictionary of ɜcture.

ny women who are engaged in farming are exceptionally sful. Ex-Governor Hoard of Wisconsin thus speaks of ɪ who devote themselves especially to stock farming: ıe many women I know who are engaged in stock farm- ›re or less extensively, there is not one who has made a of it. I think that the reason for this is that they are ›atient than men; that they pay closer attention to detail anage to get along better with the modest results which are all that can be confidently counted on." He might aid, too, that these women, engaged in an occupation until within a few years has been considered wholly im- e to them, are, as a class, "touched with that fine spirit :rpretation that renders nature, with which they are so tely in contact, wonderfully interesting."

. Virginia C. Meredith is one of the most successful and ıown stock farmers in America. Her farm is near Cam- City, Indiana. Her husband was a stock farmer and as

she had been his constant and interested companion in all undertakings, at his death she simply went forward witl business. She gives special attention to the breeding of s horns. Mrs. Meredith is a woman of fine presence, and alth an excellent farmer is much besides. She was a member o Board of Lady Managers of the Columbian Exposition, a greatly interested in University Extension work as it is re to the agricultural colleges.

Mrs. Laura D. Worley of Ellettsville, Indiana, devote self to dairy farming. There are six hundred acres in her f and everything, crops, pastures, feed, and stock, receive personal supervision. She has a large herd of Jerseys and steins, and does not keep a cow on her farm that does not age a pound of butter a day. One year's work was repres by eight thousand pounds of butter, and her plans for the ceeding year were to make double that amount. She after the milk and cream, the separating, churning, pac and shipping of her butter, and gives personal attention t care and treatment of her cows. Mrs. Worley is secretary treasurer of the Indiana State Dairyman's Association. T is no financial necessity to stimulate her in her work as s the wife of a wealthy banker, but she finds it paying therefore interesting.

The thoroughbred horses from "The Meadows," the far Mrs. R. Rowett, near Carlinville, Illinois, are famous. A death of General Rowett, the outstanding claims agains estate were more than the assets. She determined that t should be met. Knowing but little of the work, she beg read and study books, papers, and methods. She employed to do the work but she planned and superintended everyt In two years Mrs. Rowett had paid every claim against estate. Some Jersey cattle are raised on the farm, but principal business is breeding thoroughbreds, selling the when they are one year old.

Mrs. Mary B. Clay of Kentucky is another woman who found herself possessed of a farm, with no income and with two children to support. She determined to become a successful farmer and now has that title.

Mrs. Emma Perry is a successful manager of a cattle ranch near Marena, Kansas. The affairs of her husband were so poorly managed during his last illness that at his death she found bankruptcy staring her in the face. She had a section of land, seventy-five head of cattle, and a good many obligations to meet. She secured a range for her cattle and then seeded as much of her land as she could cultivate. Everything prospered until July, when a terrible hot wind blighted all the crops in that part of the country. While her neighbors despaired, she plowed the ground and planted rice-corn and sugar cane, and so had a plentiful supply of feed for her own cattle, and was able to buy the cattle which her neighbors were glad to sell. Horses are her delight and she has many fine ones, and at the races in the vicinity one of her horses is usually entered. Mrs. Perry is described as "a gentle, winsome little woman, exceedingly well informed and quite accomplished." She is rapidly gaining wealth, and her place is one of the model farms of the state.

Mrs. Johnson, the wife of Congressman Johnson of North Dakota, superintended the farm of 1,800 acres, while her husband was attending the legislative affairs of the nation. During the haying season, Mrs. Johnson was in the fields early in the morning; from her carriage, she looked after the men and teams, and, when one field was cut, selected another, and then another, until all were mown. Mr. Johnson says he never had his farm looked after in a more business-like way than when under his wife's control.

Many other women whose homes are in the West might be mentioned who are shrewd and capable managers of farms. Miss Kittie D. La Master of Gardner, Johnson county, Kansas,

who with her mother has charge of a farm of 800 acres, succeeds admirably ; goes to the Live Stock Exchange at Topeka, and attends to the financial part of the business. Other women farmers are Mrs. D. B. Freeman, Madison, Greenwood county, and Mrs. John Stack, Rossville, Shawnee county, Kansas. Mrs. Lucien Scott, widow of Judge Lucien Scott of Leavenworth, Kansas, manages her ranch in Texas, which consists of 260,000 acres, all fenced, and on which there are between six thousand and seven thousand cattle. The foregoing with regard to women as farmers is condensed from an article in a recent number of the *Chautauquan.*

According to the *Washington Star* the records of the Land Office at Washington reveal a remarkable fact concerning southern Texas,—of that part that terminates in a point at the mouth of the Rio Grande. This region, nearly as large as New England, is divided into four great counties, and is owned by four families. Much the largest of the four shares belongs to Mrs. King, widow of Captain Richard King. The records show her estate to consist of about 1,250,000 acres, or nearly 2,000 square miles. Mrs. King is referred to by Richard Harding Davis in one of his articles, when he says, "It is difficult to imagine a solitary family occupying an area larger then some of the eastern states—an area that would support a state capital, with governor and legislature and numerous small towns, with competing railway systems and rival baseball nines." Mrs. King is said to be a generous and liberal minded woman, and is about sixty years of age. Her ranch, named Santa Gertrudis, is the largest in the world. Corpus Christi Bay bounds it for a distance of forty miles, and barbed wire fences for three hundred miles more. It is thirteen miles from her front door to her front gate, and she can drive sixty-five miles in a straight line without going off her own premises. Her house, a sort of baronial mansion, is situated on a slight eminence, and is surrounded by the modest dwellings of her dependents, and by

s of corn. Isolated as it is, her home is completely fur-
ed and handsomely equipped, and no luxury that money
buy is lacking.

r. Robert J. Kleberg, Mrs. King's son-in-law, is general
ager of the ranch, on which are 200,000 cattle of improved
ls. Long trains of freight cars are made up at Corpus
sti to carry the cattle to the East.

ut all the farms owned or managed by women are not for
aising of cattle or horses or sheep. A number of women
argely engaged in the culture of flowers for sale and for
, which, to the mind of the majority of women, is more
eable than the care of a stock farm. Each has constantly
with life. Each brings about the conditions for its crea-
and development, one in the form of vegetable and the
r in the form of animal life.

here are two quite famous violet farms managed exclu-
ly by women who are their respective owners. One is the
dow Springs Farm, at Stamford, Connecticut, belonging to
Edward Leavitt, and the other is the Holmdale Violet
n, at Madison, New Jersey, owned and managed by Mrs.
ert B. Holms.

n the West, women are beginning to make a specialty of
e and other flowers. Theodosia B. Shepherd is a woman
st who raises seeds for the eastern market. Her gardens
greenhouses are at Pasadena, California. She now has
of the largest seed farms in the world. A contributor to
Breeders' Gazette says of Mrs. Shepherd's home: "It is like
ing paradise to spend a morning among her flowers.
gine five acres of nothing but sweet peas if you can, and
try to imagine the humming birds, the mocking birds,
the meadow larks that make their home among them."

growing flower seed trade is that of Miss C. H. Lippincott
Minneapolis, Minnesota. She went to that city from Phila-
hia eight years ago. Her early years had been spent among

flowers and plants and among relatives actively engaged floriculture. When she went west she had money to inv and with the advice of friends she opened a flower seed ho which has grown to be widely known throughout the coun The catalogue issued by her for 1895 is very artistic and s factory, and is a good indication of the success she has attai

Mrs. Strong of Whittier is known as the "woman f grower of Southern California." She has the largest wa grove in the world owned by one individual. She has one l dred and fifty acres of walnut trees in full bearing, an other kinds of nuts and fruits she is equally enterpris From pampas plumes on her property she realizes large s every year.

The majority of women who are endeavoring to live a of independence by earning their own bread are not doin in the breezy outdoor life of farmer or florist. Go into cities or into the large towns or villages and watch the cr of people passing on the street cars and in the streets dur the hours from seven to nine in the morning and from six seven at night! You cannot fail to notice how many of th are women. These are not the hours for idle sight-seekers leisurely shoppers. No, indeed. The brisk gait in the morn and the weary one at night indicate a busier class of peop They are the women who spend the greater share of their li in the offices, stores, and shops of the city.

Go into the dry goods stores, and you find them as cler behind the counter, or at the desk as bookkeeper or accountan in the office as stenographer, typewriter, and private secretar A half century ago their presence in these positions would n have been tolerated. Proprietors aver that among the ma superior qualifications possessed by the woman assistant, a her punctuality, docility, and honesty. Robbery and embezz ment by them are so rare as to be practically unknown, a the standard of honesty has been greatly raised by their e

ɔnt in offices and business houses generally; and that ıe increasing number of women and girls employed in shops, offices, and public departments of New York city ıas been no corresponding increase in the number of al breaches of trust.

ıas been said above, the work they do as operators in the ph and telephone office, in the large number of places of ɜs where the typewriting machine is required, as copy- secretaries, as stenographers, is most satisfactory, and as supply does not exceed the demand.

he printing office, as compositors, women also find em- ɜnt. In a large city in central New York, the propor- about one girl compositor to seven or eight men. One naturally expect the number of women engaged to be for there is no employment in which a woman is better ɔr first-class work. Theoretically it is a trade in which s no distinction on account of sex and there is equal pay ıal work, the rule holding good when a man and woman n the same office. The majority of men work in union where the highest wages prevail, and because women very difficult to obtain a situation in the union offices re working at a lower rate in the non-union offices. In the printing offices of this city mentioned above, the ɜing room is in the complete charge of a forewoman; she ɔtends the composition and "making up" of the forms ɜry book and paper that goes out of the establishment. s proved herself abundantly capable of filling this respon- ɔsition, where there is required no small amount of tact, ent, and executive ability.

in all other trades, machinery is fast taking the place of luals, and each type-setting machine does the work of l compositors. Young women soon become expert in the this machine and secure good positions and high wages.

ɜcital of woman's work in the collection and compilation

of facts in almost all departments of the present census would record an epoch in the history of woman's employment. When the roll of the eleventh census was opened, the response came from women all over the country. Hundreds had secured positions before coming to Washington; others came in the hope of securing a place through the regulations in force under civil service reform. Margaret N. Wishard, in writing on this topic, says: "The picture presented in the superintendent's room, just before the population was enumerated, was a curious one. Resolute young women from the rugged New England hills thronged in with the open-browed and independent daughters of the far-away prairies. Dusky-eyed Southern girls stood by fair-faced maidens from the lakes, all expectant and all waiting their turn to receive an order for the examination. A considerable portion of the procession consisted of soldiers' widows, who, as in other departments, were given preference over others. Never before in any census has woman asked for positions in any such proportion; never have her claims been so fully recognized in certain lines."

When fully equipped, the census office numbered in its local force about three thousand two hundred clerks, over half of which were women, some divisions being composed almost entirely of them. The work of the office begins with the population division, which is the most important and consists in counting the population from the enumerator's schedule. To do this, three kinds of machines are used; electrical counting machines, a punch, and electrical tabulators. The results given by these three show the numbers of each sex, color, occupation, etc. Regarding this work, the superintendent said: "If I were to undertake this work again, I should have none but women on any of these machines. I have found that women do more work and that more accurately than men. Women are also more conscientious. If an enumerator writes poorly, a man is more apt to guess at his answers and punch accordingly, while

oman will in a greater number of cases study to decipher poor writing and record the fact correctly."

The chief of the farms, homes, and mortgages division says: he work of the five women in this division, who were ointed special agents for 'field' work, ranked as good as the ı, and in some cases better. To obtain correct statements arding mortgages and liens on property often requires per- al visits to the owners of the property concerning which the rds are unsatisfactory. These visits require tact and diplo- :y, and have often been attended by best results when made women, who seem to have native ability for managing nan nature."

The entire census report on the momentous subject of the wth of pauperism and crime was compiled and tabulated by nen under the direction of two men. Throughout all divis- ı, aside from clerical work at the desk, women are given ference as expert stenographers and typewriters.

Salaries paid to women in the census office are better than nany other positions. Three women receive $1,600 each, e $1,400, thirty $1,200, one hundred and one, $1,000, and the jority of the remainder $900.

In 1859 the name of a woman first appeared on the rolls of General Land Office at Washington, D. C., Martha M. d of Georgia, who was assigned to the Division of Surveys, l given a salary of $600. Her work was sent to her home to lone; and it was not until 1869, when documents of too great ne to be sent hither and yon were intrusted to women, t they were called into the office. Now more than one hun- d and seventy are scattered through the thirteen divisions his part of government work.

The day for experiments for woman's work in the Treasury partment has passed. Many of them have become experts the work assigned to them. They are rapid and accurate nters of mon ıy; as detectors of counterfeit money, and

restorers of mutilated currency, they are more deft tha
The first woman who was assigned work in the Tr
building was a negro woman, Sophie Holmes. She w
pointed sweeper in the Treasury Department at twelve
a month; and later was assigned as messenger in the R
tion Department. The following shows her faithfulness

"One night when Sophie was sweeping the refuse pa
her room she found a box of greenbacks that had be
counted, and packed to transfer to the vaults, and ha
accidentally overlooked. She did not dare call the wat
for fear he would be tempted beyond resistance; so s
down upon the box and quietly waited for the hours to

"At one o'clock in the morning she heard the shuffling
General Spinner in the corridor, and heard him open tl
to his room. She quietly slipped along the corridor, k
at his door, and told him what she had found. The g
had the box taken to his room and sent Sophie home in h
riage. The next morning when she returned she fou
general still keeping guard. That night he sent for h
placed in her hand her appointment papers, given for h
and for thirty years she has earned and drawn her fifty
per month. Fifty thousand dollars was in this box."

There are 1,359 women in the Treasury Department in
ington. When the experiment of employing women clerl
yet in its infancy, a clerk was needed in the office of the a
of the accounts of the paymasters of the navy, which a
to be the most difficult of any of the accounts audited
Treasury. Examination papers were sent in, and one set
because the method displayed was so perfect and direct.
days after and Georgia Frances Snow of Detroit, Mic
appeared as the owner of the paper. She was given a des
her work soon proved she was quite as capable as the
man among them. Since that time, twenty years ago, sl
held the same desk and has done as much and as good w

The accounts are intricate and difficult,
men succeed in learning the work.
o is employed as requisition clerk has
e February, 1866, and for more than
r present desk. She is wonderfully accu-
e faultless in neatness and legibility. So
ne that few are aware of the importance
e account of millions of dollars annually.
the Interior, the Bureau of Printing and
ffice Department, the Pension Office, and
ting Office, all employ a large proportion
Many of them are skillful, neat, and rapid,
plished linguists. These are the qualifica-
nent work demands. While their accuracy
arvelous, beyond and above this is their
lations and defalcations of male employees
us, but no woman has been known to betray

ation which woman finds congenial is that of
ry clerk. In the recent examination held for
r and library clerk for the Agricultural De-
shington, D. C., women came out ahead. Of
cants for the position of cataloguer, fourteen
of whom failed to pass, while of the sixteen
ve failed. There were ten applicants for the
eight of them men, who failed, and the two
lthough Secretary Morton wanted men for the
lts caused him to change his mind, and Miss
hicago received the appointment of clerk, and
rd of Albany State Library, cataloguer.
ulmin Smith is librarian of Manchester Col-
She is the first woman to be appointed to this
an college of a great university in England,
er the heads of nearly a hundred competi-

tors. Although of English parentage, she was born in Massachusetts, during a brief stay in the United States which her parents made when Mr. Toulmin Smith was in pursuit of his historical researches. As she grew into girlhood Miss Smith found congenial occupation as her father's amanuensis, and it was in this way that she laid the foundation of her own wide acquaintance with constitutional questions. At the death of the historian she carried to a conclusion his first half-finished enterprises, especially his work on the "English Guilds."

Mrs. John Richard Green, widow of the historian, is now one of the committee to transact the business of the London Library. When it is known that such men as Herbert Spencer serve on this committee, the honor conferred on Mrs. Green will be better understood.

Mrs. Mary J. Sibley is the formally elected assistant librarian of Syracuse University, of which her husband, Dr. Henry O. Sibley, is librarian. She is a graduate from this institution, having finished the course in 1889, and received the degree of Ph.B. She has since completed post graduate courses and has received two degrees, Master of Philosophy and Doctor of Philosophy, and is one of the youngest women in the country to receive the last named degree.

As a librarian Mrs. Sibley is a perfect success, her services being invaluable to the students of the university. There is no subject of investigation upon which she is not prepared to render aid, and so well acquainted is she with the books in her charge that she oftentimes immediately refers a questioner to the exact floor, section, stack, shelf, book, and sometimes page, where the desired information is to be found. In the originality displayed in her work, she has proved herself possessed of one of the essential qualifications of a librarian. She has originated several ingenious devices in library methods and is undoubtedly one of the most competent librarians among the women of the United States.

Similar to the work of librarian is that of the women who locate themselves in an office in a central part of a city or town and undertake to buy books and find references for men of business. One such in New York says she personally solicits patronage of business men, making lawyers a specialty. Books on law, dentistry, medicine, politics, naval and army proceedings, Congressional reports, files of old newspapers, scientific works in the different languages, are all in her line. Volumes it would take a busy man a long time to find, she knows where to get and can place in his office in an hour. If he does not care to buy the book, she purchases it and charges for the reading of it. She looks up references and makes full notes on the subject in hand and sends the answer promptly.

Thus time and space might be utilized in recording the business successes of women, but the limits of this article forbid. Brief reference to a few other occupations will suffice to show her enterprise in all vocations upon which she has entered.

Women are undertakers, and can and do manage all details of their calling except the actual conduct of a funeral. Many in New York have mastered the art of embalming and are employed as undertakers' assistants, in much the same way as a doctor calls for the services of a nurse. Brooklyn has not only women undertakers but a woman is also sexton. Mrs. Harriet Duterte, a negro woman of Philadelphia, is a prominent undertaker of that city. She arranges all the minutest details of funerals, and has carried on her business successfully for many years. Women conduct laundries. Now when steam and machinery do the hardest of the work more of them are beginning to see that this is an occupation well fitted to their quick eyes and deft fingers. Mrs. M. A. Weaver of Washington is particularly successful at this business; and in almost every town of any considerable size, others may be found well located.

Between three and four hundred women in the United States have received their degree in pharmacy. Women druggists

are having remarkable success, none as yet having been held responsible for errors in compounding prescriptions.

In some of the cities of our country there are enterprising, economical women, skilled in the culinary art. These have originated the idea of placing appetizing lunches in neat white paper boxes, and selling them in the business offices.

Some women are winning laurels as photographers, and in nearly every studio they are employed as assistants. Those who make a specialty of children's pictures have a fine field and there are many who have discovered the fact.

Then they are occupying positions that are given by the vote of the people and also by the appointment of public officials. In the street cleaning department of New York city, Mrs Cynthia M. Westover has been appointed one of the inspectors. She was secretary to a former street commissioner of New York, and knows the Italian language and so is peculiarly fitted for her work. Mrs. Fay Pierce also holds a similar position. Three women have been elected members of the Colorado legislature, Mrs. Caroline Hyde Holly, Mrs. Francis Klock, and Mrs. Clara Cressingham; who, if the Denver papers are to be credited, are considerably above the average of intelligence in the legislature. Another woman has been elected to the office of state superintendent of education in the same state. Some Western cities, notably in Kansas, have elected woman mayors, and, in the East, it is not unusual to find women holding the office of school commissioner and members of Boards of Education.

Dressmaking as a field of labor belongs almost entirely to women, with a few exceptions known to the world, as Worth, Redfern, and Felix. In every city, town, and village, the followers of this occupation are to be found, and as in all kinds of business, the most capable, they who have a correct knowledge of the principles underlying the art, are the truly prosperous and successful ones. Thousands of garments for women and children are now bought ready-made and yet the demand for

the home dressmaker seems not to abate. Since the advent of the sewing machine and its installation in almost every home as a necessity, the expert needlewoman has become a rarity, consequently the demand for garments made by hand has increased. This has proved a boon to many a woman in middle life, whose early education with the needle has not been forgotten, for her services are now greatly desired and well paid, and she is enabled to provide for her own necessities.

Perhaps no better finish could be given to this review of women in business than a sketch of Mrs. Oura, a Japanese woman who died ten years ago, at the age of fifty-seven years. She was a stirring business woman and the pioneer of foreign commerce in Japan. She was born in Nagasaki and in 1853 she opened up a trade with foreign merchants for the export of tea and other products of the country at a time when every impediment was put in the way of such an enterprise by the Japanese government. Later she undertook a voyage to Europe, then a most extraordinary thing for a Japanese, but had to return home because she became very ill in the Indian Ocean. On her return to Nagasaki she began the now flourishing export trade of Japan tea. Mrs. Oura established and maintained friendly relations with the most advanced politicians of Japan of that time, among whom were Messrs. Komatsu, Sakamoto, Count Oynma and Mutsu, and rendered valuable assistance in their projects. During the visit of General Grant to Japan, Mrs. Oura saw him on board a steamship at Nagasaki and was highly praised by him for her courage and for the service she had rendered to her own country and its foreign trade. The general exchanged portraits with her, and her departure from the vessel was honored by a salute of two guns. Shortly before her death Mrs. Oura received from the government a diploma and a pension as an acknowledgment of her valuable services to the country. The people of Tokio, Japan, are taking measures to erect a monument to her memory.

MEN AND MACHINERY.

GREAT ADVANCEMENT IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

THE advance in manufacturing is inseparably woven into the fabric of human progress. History shows that manufacturers have always been dependent upon the intellectual and moral advancement of mankind, and wherever men are found of low morals or feeble intelligence, there their work and their tools are seen to be of the rudest and most elementary kind. No ignorant or debased race or people ever have been manufacturers. Such have invariably depended upon the chase for food, or upon the spontaneous growths of nature, or, as did some of the early races, upon the spoils taken from others by war; or, whenever they have been compelled to till the soil for food, they have been and yet are content with the simplest, rudest implements that will serve the purpose. This fact of history emphasizes the wisdom shown by some of the most advanced of modern nations in providing for the education of the people by means of free elementary schools, and of free technical and other trade schools. An intelligent people always becomes a manufacturing people, while, on the other hand, ignorance is the very death of all manufacturing.

The museums of Europe and America contain exhibits that are miniature histories of the various manufactures of men from primeval times down to our day. And they prove two things: first, that the ancient world had, like our modern one, an advanced civilization, with its resultant great manufactories, con-

ıporaneous with vast hordes of the human race sunk in ıorance, and its consequent barbarism; secondly, that the soning faculty of men, when uncultivated, employs, like the tinct of the bird or beast, the one process to accomplish one only desired result.

The bird of to-day builds the same kind of nest in the same y that its ancestors did thousands of years ago. Likewise ı may find hovels for human dwellings that are built of the ıe materials, and in the same manner, rude pottery fash- ɜd after the same design, according to the same methods, l by the same kinds of tools that the primeval man em- ɣed, now being made and used to-day, by his descendant in ıy parts of Asia and Africa. There is in constant daily use ıorthern Africa the same kind of rude stone hand mills for ıding grain for food that were in use in Egypt three thou- d years before the birth of Christ. In many parts of Asia, Africa, of America, and of Oceanica, the precise primitive icultural implements and processes are yet employed as were ı by the first historic man six thousand years ago in the ıopotamian plateau. Nay, the prehistoric man's childish im- nents for scratching the soil of the earth, his stone knives dressing the skins of animals killed in the chase, his bows l arrows, his fish hooks, his dye-stuffs for coloring his body, huts, his boats, his house furnishings, his household imple- ıts, his dress, are to-day in use by his descendants in various ts of the earth.

On the other hand, the untraveled inhabitant of our modern ɣe manufacturing city, with its vast conveniences and lux- es of homes and daily life, is too apt to think that all who ɣe been before him were barbarians, and that manufacturing ıut a thing of recent date. But the inscriptions on the mighty numents of old Egypt, the treasures dug from her ruins, as ll as those found in ancient Chaldea, Assyria, and Greece, ıw this to be a mistake, and prove that three thousand five

semble so closely the precious stones—amethyst,
carnelian, lapis lazuli—that even now experts a
to distinguish the real stones from the false.
graved glass, soldered glass, glass figures, gla
wood, straw, and string, glass insects, birds,
figures, and columns of wonderful color, execut
were easily made by those old Egyptians.
fashioned the hardest rocks—diorite, basalt, an
Syene—into marvelous forms, cutting granite
the same ease as our modern workman does s
elaborately cut and countersunk figures and
such stone are the astonishment of modern build
centuries of time the edges of their cuttings a
fine as though made but yesterday. How they
dle of the ages—for no iron or steel tool has y
the stone yards or quarries of ancient Egypt. S
bronze chisels have been there found with edges
just made by the artisan, but the secret of temp
rial, if that were used, has perished with them.
those times had the ax, adze, hatchet, saw, plan

ighly probable, used this microscope to accomplish his wonlerfully fine work.

Their cabinetmakers and upholsterers made for the wealthy, ables, sofas, bedsteads, chairs, and furniture of various kinds, hat surpassed in luxuriousness that of our modern days. They ad elegant toilet articles, made famous musical instruments, ere proficient in fine arts, dyed fabrics equal to any done to-day, nd made gorgeous tapestries and carpets. They spun linen, nd wove it on their rude looms, of such wondrous fineness as o require one hundred and forty threads to the inch in the warp. ay, Sir John Gardner Wilkinson found such linen cloth on a ummy in Thebes, having one hundred and fifty-two threads o the inch in warp, and another in Memphis with five hundred nd forty threads to the inch in the warp. They wrought in eather, in ivory, in horn and bones, in agate, alabaster, and arble; had gold and silver plate, and jewelry, mirrors, ornaents, and statuary of bronze, ivory, and the precious metals, qualing those of to-day. They made plows, hoes, and forks (of ood), for agriculture, similar to those now in use in parts of sia and Europe, and, if Herodotus and the monuments may be elieved, they were the great teachers as well as manufacturers f the ancient world, with thousands of pupils in attendance at heir great colleges at Thebes and Memphis, to whom came reece and Rome and the parts of the earth for wisdom.

Diodorus tells us that the houses of the wealthy at Thebes ere the most magnificent in the world, and were five and six tories in height, with rooms fifteen to sixteen feet high. In the arts of the towns and cities allotted to the artisan class—for he son must needs follow the trade of the father, which probbly accounts for the great skill at length attained by them—he houses were made of sun-dried brick, generally of two tories, with plain and simple furniture, albeit averaging well with that of the workingman of to-day.

From the Biblical narratives of the building of Babel, and

from the tablets of Urukh, the ancient Chaldean king dug from the ruins of Uarka, as well as from the inscriptions found in Persepolis, Nineveh, and Babylon, and on the monuments of Egypt, it is seen that the artisan class of those ancient days were captives taken in war and held by the king, or else were slaves bought in the market. The Oriental, then as now, set little store by the workingman. In the Thibet of to-day, the artisans and musicians are social outcasts, and are called in derision *bem*, by the unspeakably lazy and thieving of the other classes.

In the ancient world, the king, the noble, the priest, the warrior, constituted the people. Shops, and factories, and stores were generally driven to out of the way places in town or city, manufacturers being considered men of no character and their employees social outcasts. Yet it is their work alone that has survived the wreckage of ages. But for them who would now know aught of old Egypt or Assyria? Savages are strangers to the hammer, the plane, and the plow. So also are kings, and the work of the one is as evanescent as the other, unless the hand of the artisan or the brain of the scribe gives knowledge of him to peoples unborn. The very names of the kings of old Egypt are now known to us only by the work of their despised slaves, who were educated that they might do this work.

So in Babylon, that wonder of the olden world four thousand years ago, there were woven garments equaling in richness any now made, fine cotton, woolen, and linen goods, carpets of fast dyes, that were figured as nicely as our modern ones, and were as costly and elaborate as they. The story of the palaces of her nobles, whose woodwork was inlaid with pearl, and whose walls were covered with gold leaf, hammered by the artisan, their gold and silver plate, their sumptuous garments and house appointments, the magnificence of the city temples, the great fairs and musical festivals, is as marvelous as the well-known account of the city's hanging gardens, or Nebuchadnezzar's eighteen million dollar golden image, or its giant walls and

famous gates of brass. Its ruins, like those of Nineveh, have produced vases, jars, dishes, bottles, ivory, pearl, gold, and silver ornaments, rings, and bells, and engraved gems, castings of animal and human forms, bracelets, and dagger handles, gilt headed nails, and glazed pottery of many kinds.

Likewise Schliemann's discoveries at Mycenæ, of vessels of gold and plates of bronze, show that before the days of the Helenes the mechanic was abroad. But as in Egypt, Babylon, and Nineveh, so in Attica, he was a slave and toiled in her factories and mines and quarries as such—four hundred thousand out of its population of five hundred and fifty thousand being slaves. Indeed, it is safe to say that the ancient world would have had no manufactures but for its vast system of slavery.

Educated slaves planned and toiled, and made great Rome the mistress of the world. The ruins and memorials yet standing in that city bear witness to the mightiness of their work. Thither came the manufactories and commerce of the world, because its skilled artisans were carried there as captives of war. After the downfall of the Roman empire, manufacturing hid itself in walled towns to protect its product from the robber barons of the Middle Ages and made rich a few free cities in Italy, as Venice and Florence, and later made great and rich the Netherlands, which became Europe's workshop; and then the English were wise enough to invite thither the skilled artisans whom religious bigots were driving from Holland, France, and Spain, and so England laid the foundation of her modern greatness as *the* manufacturing nation of the earth.

During the Middle Ages, manufacturing suffered much, not only from the forced tribute laid upon it by king and baron, but it suffered also from the exactions and restrictions put upon it by its avowed friends, the guilds and corporations into which the artisans were formed. Between the sixteenth and the eighteenth centuries manufacturing greatly changed throughout Europe by the application of power to machinery, by the

may grow no man knoweth.

But the population of the earth is as yet illy su
poorest of the necessities of life, not to mention it
or luxuries. As illustrating the aid given by t
of machinery to supplement man's labor, it ma
that in 1815 one person produced daily by the spi
much yarn as two hundred persons could do pr
now a girl twelve years of age in a Lancashire m
enough printed cloth in a year to clothe twelve h
for that period, and the sewing machines produce
States alone in a single year can do the work o
two hundred thousand women. One man witl
boot making machine can turn out four hundred
day, and a comparatively small boot factory ne
out daily by machinery an amount of work
thousand boot makers could not do.

In the rebuilding of the Cologne Cathedral i
did by machinery work that would have taken o
eighty men to accomplish in the Middle Ages.
reaper will cut and bind an acre of wheat in for

he truth hitherto unknown, that freedom of labor, as well as ecurity to property, is indispensable to the highest in manuacturing success.

It may be instructive to note and contrast *our beginnings* as anufacturers with *our present*. The first manufactory in the nited States was one for glass, built in the woods a mile from amestown, Va., in 1607, and one for making glass beads for curency in trading with the Indians in 1621. Salt was first made in amestown, Va., in 1620. In 1626 New York city had a horse mill or grinding grain on the present site of Trinity Church. In 1629 brick kiln was erected in Salem, Mass., while the first mill in lassachusetts was a windmill for grinding grain near Waterown, removed in 1633 to Copp's Hill, Boston. In the latter year sawmill was introduced into Massachusetts, and the same ear of 1633 into New York by the Dutch, and immediately rought about an improvement in building; while as late as 767 a mob destroyed such a sawmill in England on the plea hat it was ruining the sawyer's trade, just as a mob destroyed he first spinning jenny and mill for a similar reason.

Shoes were made at Lynn, Mass., in 1635, of neat leather nd woolen cloth, with wooden heels, which were covered with eather, till 1800, when leather heels were substituted. Salem, lass., had a glass factory in 1639, and Philadelphia one in 1683. Iats were early made, Virginia offering, in 1662, a premium or ounty of ten pounds of tobacco for each hat made in the provnce, and hats were made in all the states before 1800. Rope was made in Boston, Mass., as early as 1631, and the first linen cloth in 1640, and woolens at Rowley, Mass., in 1644. The first copper smelting works were at Salem, Mass. The Dutch worked copper mines in New Jersey in 1660, and the Jesuits at Lake Superior near the same time, the first cargo of copper being shipped from New York in 1766.

Lynn, Mass., had the first foundry, in 1663, the first article made being a quart pot, cannon and balls being made in 1664.

manufactories to the exclusion and supersed
goods." The company employed four hundred
a spinning jenny recently imported from En
years later they contracted with the Continen
supply the American army with clothing.

The first cotton factory was built at Beverly
and an Arkwright machine was put in a mill at F
in 1790. Nails were made by hand in the eveni
up in chimney corners, until Jacob Perkins had
his machine for cutting and heading nails, his r
ten thousand a day. In 1793 Thomas Jefferson
plows made with his newly invented moldb
in 1794 "a great furnace with a capacity of t
annually," with ten forges, for making bar ir
was built at Carver, Mass.

The first cotton mill ever built with compl
making cloth direct from the raw cotton was
tham, Mass., in 1813, and in 1815 the first tack
up at Bridgewater, Mass., making that year o
fifty million tacks. Pewter plates such as Colu

tter's Mills, California, in 1849, and silver in Storey county, da, by Comstock and Phinney in 1858. Now see the con-

The average annual value of the mineral metal products e United States, such as gold, silver, iron, lead, etc., has for the past five years over two hundred and eighty-six on dollars per year, and of the non-metals, such as coal, petroleum, etc., over three hundred and fifty million dol- ver year; the value of the coal alone being over one hun- and sixty-one million dollars per year, or more than that the gold, silver, and copper combined.

ne annual value of the manufactured products of the coun- 1 1890 was given as $9,372,437,283; the value of the iron and products of that year being $524,592,775. In the first twenty s of this century, three million tons of iron ore were mined e United States, while in the one year of 1892 there were 5,666 tons mined.

ne United States census of 1890 gave us a population of 2,250 persons as against 3,929,214 in the year 1790, and of number 4,712,622 were employed in manufactories, the al value of their product being as given above. More than (i. e., 186,147) of the 355,415 manufactories of all kinds given ne census were located in one hundred and sixty-five cities ne country having populations of twenty thousand or over, they employed more than half (i. e., 2,907,882) of the total ber of persons employed in manufacturing in the country. ore than one half (i. e., 181,257) of all the factories or man- turing establishments, and nearly two thirds of the em- ees (i. e., 2,599,574), were in the five states of New York, nsylvania, Ohio, Massachusetts, and Illinois. Out of the 47 manufactories located in those one hundred and sixty- cities of the country, 94,542 were in the twelve cities of New k, Philadelphia, Chicago, Brooklyn, St. Louis, Boston, Cin- ati, Baltimore, San Francisco, Buffalo, Milwaukee, and neapolis, naming them in the order of amount of capital

invested in manufacturing. These twelve cities had 1,470,59 persons employed in their factories, or more than those of al the other cities combined, and they paid more than four sev enths (i. e., $839,724,095) of the total wages paid by the cities t employees, and produced over three fifths (i. e., $3,473,255,66 of the total value of the products of factories in the one hun dred and sixty-five cities and considerably more than one thir of the value of the manufactured products of all the country.

Hence it will be readily seen that our great cities are th great manufactories of the land, density of population being necessity for successful manufacturing. England surpass most of Europe as a manufacturing country, because her de sity of population enables her to employ capital at points mo advantageous. Lancaster, one of the most populous counti of England, is also her greatest manufacturing center. I France the departments of the Seine and of the north are t most populous and the wealthiest, with most manufactori Belgium now supports the densest populations because t country is simply a huge workshop. True the shop cann enlarge the country's territory, but it creates cities and vast increases the wealth of the land, a single year's product of o factories being now of greater valuation than the entire Unit States was rated at in 1850. It also creates commerce, that the United States being in 1890, $1,844,000,000 out of the who world's aggregate of $17,817,441,515 for that year.

Some of our American manufacturers seem absurdly fearf of British rivalry in trade. They should bear in mind that 1894 forty-seven per cent. of our exports went to Great Britai and but sixteen per cent. of our imports came from her. an that, in spite of our panic and prodigious extravagance, t wealth of this country increased over two billions of dollars year, during the last decade. America need not fear the bus ness competition of the world, if her people continue moral God-fearing, intelligent, and free.

BRUSH AND CHISEL.

THE MARCH OF PROGRESS IN PAINTING AND SCULPTURE.

IN the tombs and caves which surround the pyramids of ancient Memphis are found examples of Egyptian sculpture of great archæological interest and artistic importance, dating back as far as the twenty-second century ıfore Christ. Very many of the bas-reliefs found in these mbs were painted in bright colors, which have preserved their eshness through a lapse of five thousand years. The richly ınexed hieroglyphic documents and inscriptions invariably late to the person and life of the deceased, who, as a rule, are t down as high functionaries of the old Memphis dynasties.

We look in vain among the examples of Egyptian art for a ıviation from the stereotyped rule or formula of sculptural conruction, but find no instance where the artist had emancipated mself from the conventional type: the low forehead and ıttened skull, the long narrow eye and slightly raised eyeow, the long nose and the full sensuous lips. All of these charteristics appear in the famous sphinx, built by Shafra, who ansformed a natural rock into the gigantic form of the sphinx ıe hundred and seventy-two feet long: a recumbent lion with ıtstretched claws and a colossal human head. The art of the old ingdom of Memphis was continued in the monuments of the ew kingdom and its capital, Thebes, from the sixteenth to the ıirteenth century before Christ; only the works became richer

and more full of figures ; and their hieroglyphics mainly glorify the life and acts of the divinely honored Pharaohs. But in the succeeding period down to the time of the Ptolemies, and to the later Roman supremacy, they produced splendid monuments, steadily preserving the national characteristics. The rock temples of Ipsambool, Girschek, and Wadi Sebua, on the upper Nile, rank in grandeur and beauty with the works of the lower country.

In Central Asia, on the banks of the two streams, the Euphrates and the Tigris, is the broad alluvial land of Mesopotamia, where the supremacy of ancient Assyrian art is distinguished from the Egyptian by a greater power, by fullness and roundness in the reliefs, and a more energetic delineation of life. The grouping of figures and animals is also more elaborate and picturesque, yet constrained and in the old conventional manner of the Egyptians. The animals of the late Assyrian art are far superior to the men in the nobleness of structure, in power and grace ; and it is safe to assume that in every epoch, from ancient Thebes down to mediæval Byzantium, the ancient civilization of Egypt was the model for the various styles of artistic excellence in Asia.

Persian art culminated in the glorification of the great kings, and is best represented in its splendid architecture in the palaces of Persepolis and in the tomb façades of the royal sepulchers. The ruins of the royal palace of Persepolis, popularly called "the forty columns," or "the throne of Jemschid," owe their origin to the reigns of Darius Hystaspis and Xerxes, 521–467 B. C., which period marks the height of the Persian power.

Prior to 500 B. C. all artistic works had aimed at the glorification of the rulers, or the illustration of incidents in the life of the people, but it was otherwise with the Greeks in their great historical period, when the Athenian gods and heroes were created under the inspiration of a high and mighty faith, which imbued these works with a sublime grandeur not since attained.

The belief in the personality of the gods was the stimulant to the imagination, and it found such expression in those heroic and noble forms as those gifted artists alone were able to conceive. The marvelous execution of these great works in one short era is the most extraordinary part of the history of this people. Their conceptions and the realization were spontaneous and consecutive. The sculptor's chisel following close upon the birth of new ideas, an absolute faith in their ideal, intensified their imaginative conceptions into a vivid reality. They lived, moved, and had their being in the atmosphere of the gods; their creative genius absorbed their individuality; and the spirit which moved them to action was transmitted to their works.

The very gods that possessed the spirit of Homer when he wrote the Iliad seem to have prevailed in the minds of these men when they built the Parthenon and placed the sculptured marbles on its frieze. Standing upon a small plane above the surrounding country at Athens was a group of buildings which were the crowning glory of art, a jewel-bedecked hill, sparkling in the light of the sun like a tiara of diamonds on the brow of a lovely queen. How justly and truly was she the pride and glory of her people, and the admiration of the whole world!

This great epoch of ideal art in Greece extended over a very short period, beginning about the close of the Persian war, after the "Doric migration" gave the Greek nation the impetus to that grand development which assigned to her forever her indisputable position as the first cultivated people in the world. Greek plastic art cannot be measured in the scale of ordinary humanity, because its types are wholly ideal, and only revert to nature for their forms, their high aim being always the expression of divinity, the dignity and beauty of their gods.

The greatest sculptor of all ages was born at Athens about the year 500 B. C. He first devoted himself to painting, but soon *perceived his true* vocation, and repaired to Hegias for

instruction. He then turned to Argos, where he completed his artistic studies under Ageladas. The great statesman, Pericles, soon recognized his ability, became his friend, and directed the completion of the work which Cimon had begun for the restoration of Athens. The monuments of the Acropolis now rose from their ashes more stately and more beautiful than ever. Ictinus was the architect and builder of the Parthenon, but it was Phidias who made it sublime. With its completion, 437 B. C., Phidias had finished the work of his ripest manhood. The highest task ever assigned to this great sculptor was the creation, for the temple of Olympia, of a statue of the supreme ruler in Olympus, the father of gods and of men. This mighty work was more than forty feet high, and was formed of ivory and gold on a wooden foundation.

Alcamenes, the Athenian or Lemnian, ranking first among the pupils of Phidias, executed the group of statues on the west gable of the temple of Jupiter at Olympia ; also, about 402 B. C., the statues of Minerva and Hercules, which Thrasybulus and his colleagues dedicated to the temple of Hercules at Thebes as a token of gratitude for their success in freeing the country from the thirty tyrants. Alcamenes was also famous as a caster in bronze, and, like Phidias, was above all a sculptor of gods. The Venus by Praxiteles, which carried away the palm in his competition with Agoracritus, stood in the temple of the goddess which was situated in the garden outside the eastern wall of Athens. In the famous Venus of Melos, now in the Louvre, is seen the majesty of the types of this epoch.

Agoracritus is also mentioned as a favorite pupil of Phidias, who is said to have given the finishing touches to a number of his most important works. Another pupil of Phidias was Colotes of Heraclea, or, according to others, of Paros, who assisted his master in the execution of the Olympian Jupiter. The Athenian Praxis, who belonged to the school of Calamis, was influenced by the works of Phidias, as were also Androsthenes.

Theocosmos, Thrasymedes, Myron and his son and pupil Lycius, Cresilas, who took part with Phidias, Polydectes, and Phradmon in the competition of delineating an amazon. To this galaxy may be added the names of Demetrius, Callimachus, and Strongylion, the latter being especially esteemed for his excellent delineation of animals, which were executed with a vigor and truth before unknown. His remarkable brazen copy of the wooden Trojan horse was discovered on the Acropolis in the year 1840.

Next to Athens the Peloponnesus was in this epoch the principal seat of art. Lysippus was at the height of his artistic labors in the time of Alexander, and the great king would allow none else to represent him in sculpture, and would only be painted by Apelles, and cut in stone by Pyrgoteles. Lysippus raised to its utmost height the delineation of beauty in the human form by his refinement of physical proportions, delicate yet forcible manipulation of muscular action, and expression, giving almost the breath of life to his marble figures,—as seen in the figure of Mercury bending forward to fasten the sandal on his foot, now in the Glyptothek at Munich, brought from Hadrian's villa at Tivoli.

Of the school of Lysippus was his brother Lysistratus, who, Pliny tells us, was the first to make plaster casts after the living model, to mold these in wax, and to work on the form thus produced. His brother Daïppus is known for his statues of athletes, and for a wrestler cleaning himself with a strigil. Then followed Boëdas, who is supposed to have made the "Praying Boy" in the museum at Berlin; then Eutychides; and Chares of Lindus, who transplanted the Sicyonic style to his native island, Rhodes, and became famed for his colossal statue of the God of the Sun at Rhodes, one hundred and five feet high, at which he is said to have labored for twelve consecutive years. Sixty years after its completion (291 B.C.) it was destroyed by an earthquake.

of the Vatican, Pliny attributes to the Rhodia
sander, Athenodorus, and Polydorus. Of the sa
"Farnese Bull" by Apollonius and Tauriscus
Caria, which, according to Pliny, was brought
it became the property of Asinius Pollio. It
the Baths of Caracalla, and passed with the
ance to Naples (1534–49), where it is still to
museum. The group of wrestlers now in Flor
the same school. Tradition asserts, that, at t
tories over the Gauls (or Galatians) in Greece
B. C., when the Gauls threatened to plunde
Apollo at Delphi, and suffered a decisive de
assisted in the defense of their shrine, which k
enthusiasm throughout Hellas that the Ætol
monumental group of figures at Delphi, which r
generals in company with Diana, Minerva, an
Apollo Belvedere, which was found at the close
century in the ruins of ancient Antium, and w
posed to be holding a bow in the extended hand,
to be holding the ægis, which Apollo used occ

riors, and who, after the conquest of lower Italy, Sicily, Greece, and Asia Minor, commenced to execute their grand scheme of spoliation. Marcellus, in the year 212 B. C., carried in masses to Rome the works of art which had been obtained at the taking of Syracuse; displaying them in the triumphal procession, and consecrating them to the Temple of Honor and Valor which he erected. When Flaminius celebrated his victory over Philip of Macedon the removal of the plundered works of art occupied two full days. Seven years later Fulvius Nobilior exhibited no fewer than five hundred and fifteen statues of bronze and marble in his triumph over the Ætolians; he also brought with him Greek artists to arrange the displays of his feast of victory. And when Æmilius Paulus made his triumphal procession after his victories over Perseus of Macedon, two hundred and fifty wagons were required to carry the spoils of statues and paintings alone.

From the conquest of Greece till the time of Augustus there were no Hellenic creations of importance; and only a few survivors of Hellenic art were to be found in Rome in the middle of the second century B. C. With them the revival of Greek art in Rome began, about 150 B. C. A new Attic school was founded upon the old Greek principles and ideas. The famous Torso of the Belvedere in Rome was the work of the Athenian Apollonius. Of the same school is the Medicean Venus executed by Cleomenes of Athens, the son of Apollodorus. There are numerous examples of sculpture scattered throughout the museums of Europe, of uncertain date and origin, bearing the stamp of genuine Hellenic spirit, which were executed in the time of Augustus and Hadrian. From Hadrian to the decline of the Roman Empire the spirit of antique sculpture had developed, as may be seen in the statues and portrait busts of emperors wherein we find little else than a chronological record of external facts; closing the lamentable record of decline and decay *in the facsimile* representation presented by the bust of

that famous Florentine school whose shepherd la
1336), was the first to produce lifelike portraits, a
whose great master, Leonardo da Vinci (1452–
mightiest Titan of all artists, Michael Angelo Bu
1564), and the divine Raphael Sanzio d' Urbino
their wonderful works (some of which yet remain
by many restorations) have made Italy to be the
artists of the world, for the past four centuries.
ture copies of "The Transfiguration," "The La
"Moses," "Morning" and "Night," "The Mador
of these great artists, are household adornments i

The reader is referred to the several excellent
these great artists, for an account of their va
marvelous achievements. He will do well also to
self with the works of those other great maste
as Tiziano Vecellio (Titian) (1477–1576), Paolo
Veronese) (1530–1588), of the Venetian school; A
(Correggio) (1494–1534) and Agostino Caracci (15
Lombard school; of Diego Velasquez de Silva (
Bartolomé Estéban Murillo (1618–1682) of the Sp

The two great chiefs of the Greek epoch, Phidias and Praxteles, owed to a large extent, as did Angelo and Raphael in the Mediæval period, their pre-eminence above their fellows of to-day, to the fact that they were supported by royalty and the nobility, and were thus given free scope to develop their powers to the utmost, untrammeled, as so many of our present artists are, by the constant dread of the tradesman with his bill, at the door.

Think of Beethoven, trying to compose his immortal Ninth Symphony, and so beset while he wrote, by persistent collectors of small bills, that at last he caught up that amazing production, and, in despair, rushing on the street, sold it for the twenty ducats, wherewith to stop their clamor! Think of Corot stamping in despair on the pictures that he could not sell for bread! and of Millet at a small dealer's shop, selling for three hundred francs a picture that soon after sold for eighty-seven thousand francs, and then writing to a friend, with a sob in his heart, and a smile on his lips: "I dare not pass before the butcher's. There are not two shillings in the house, and this has been my condition for some twenty years." Could Zeuxis or Parrhasius have gained renown under such conditions?

They who decry our modern artists, as being inferior to the ancients, should bear in mind these changed conditions. Give them the exceptional advantages that the ancients enjoyed of being supported by the state or by wealthy patrons, and they can do as well. Nay, it is doubtful if Raphael ever equaled in his compositions the wonderfulness of color and conception seen in Munkacsy's "Christ Before Pilate," nor will Millet's "Angelus" suffer by comparison with the "Last Supper." The night has not yet set on Art, nor skill and cunning, power of conception and discernment of the beautiful, fled from men's minds.

WOMAN IN THE STUDIO.

HER CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE FIELD OF ART.

THE number of women who in all ages have acquired celebrity as painters is large. It would seem that the palette, the brush, the pencil, and the correct arrangement of colors fall naturally to their hands. In the domain of art, the feminine mind, attuned to thoughts of truth and purity, finds a natural field. It may not be in what is denominated high or ideal art, although some of the work of artists of the later years may be so classed ; but in the study of nature, we might say naturalistic art, woman is successful.

A long time ago a certain wise man wrote, "There is nothing new under the sun," and one feels again assured of the truth of this proverb of King Solomon, as he reads of the women painters who were famous in the years before our Lord's appearance on earth.

Pliny mentions Helena, the daughter of Timon of Egypt, whose work was done four hundred years before Christ, and Anaxandra of Egypt, 200 B. C. ; and Aristaretti, who made a portrait of Esculapius.

In later years we learn that Margareta Van Eyck, who was born in 1370, sister of Hubert and Jan Van Eyck, the founders of the Flemish school, and the reputed inventors of oil painting, had talents similar to her brothers, for in the National Gallery at London is a Madonna and Child done by her.

In many collections are to be found the paintings of St.

ine of Bologna and Sophronisba Angioscolo of Cremona; in the north of Europe were painters whose names are known, among them being Sabina Steinbach, Maria ı, and Maria Angelica Kauffmann; the name and work latter being familiar to the artist world. She lived from 1807, and had great talent, although, in the opinion of ;ics, it did not amount to genius. However, in her day ıs a gifted woman of many accomplishments. She was ughter of a painter, and at the age of twelve years ;ed marked attention because of her familiarity with ıre, history, and art. Her father appreciated her talents ;voted himself to her education, and, to further it, took Italy. Angelica's ability to paint portraits had at that ıge made itself conspicuous, and, at the age of thirteen, ıs overtaxed with orders. At twenty, she was celebrated, .d traveled all through Southern Europe. Winckelmann engs, two of the best known German artists of that time, nthusiastic in appreciation of her skill as an artist. She portraits of many eminent men and women of high rank. ıpanying Lady Wentworth to England, she was received onor in the highest circles. Portraits by her hand were ge. The organization of the English Royal Academy ed at this time, and Angelica was one of the original six members. She always had a prominent place in its tions. In the decoration of St. Paul's Cathedral, she was ıted with Sir Joshua Reynolds and Benjamin West on ;mmission appointed for that purpose. Her last years ;assed in Venice and Rome; at Rome she formed friend- vith such men as Goethe, Herder, and Klopstock. Re- .nd honor were accorded to her by all. Photographs and ure copies of many of her works have made us of this miliar with the grace and refinement of her style. "The ina" is perhaps the most frequently seen.

wever much can be claimed for the honor of the women

who have lived, for the women who live now one can claim much more. There are many in England whose work in art ranks above that of the average Englishman. Mrs. Stanhope Forbes does work that is worthy of a place beside that of her talented husband; Virginia Breton's paintings are worthy of her father. Emma Lawstudt, a Swede, Anna Archer, a Danish woman, and Marie Cazin, in painting and in sculpture, have done most creditable work—work that has given them a name and place in the world of art. Rosa Bonheur has painted pictures which entitle her to the high position which she occupies. She is a woman of remarkable energy and brave persistency of character, and by the exercise of these qualities she has fairly won her fame.

It must have been as early as 1857 or 1858 that the features of Rosa Bonheur became familiar to us, through copies of the famous portrait of her, by Dubufe, junior, which was displayed with paintings by other celebrated artists at that time, in New York. The face in this picture is full of life; the eyes bright, black, and intense in expression; the features might not be called beautiful, but nobility is stamped upon them. The hair, cut short, is parted like a man's, on one side of the head, while the costume, what can be seen of it, has a suspicion of masculinity in it.

The other figure in this picture, the animal on which Rosa is represented as carelessly and affectionately leaning, has a placid, well-fed expression, which contrasts strongly with the keen and ardent intellectuality of the face of the woman.

This representation of her has been superseded in the recent years by a photograph, by Ambrosetti. The eyes still sparkle, the thick, wavy hair, white now, is still worn short at the neck and swept back from the broad brow. Her small figure, though bearing the weight of seventy-three years, is still alert and straight, the voice clear and womanly, and the touch of the hand sympathetic.

Marie Rosa Bonheur was born in Bordeaux, in 1822. She was the eldest of four children of Raymond Bonheur, a portrait and landscape painter. The children are all artists, Rosa having gained the widest reputation; and their father was the only instructor of his children in art.

The talent of Rosa was early displayed; it was a loving labor that Raymond Bonheur bestowed upon his daughter, training her in drawing from life, and it is through his discipline that she has gained such a large measure of success.

It was in 1840 that she exhibited her first painting, "Two Rabbits," after which the lovers of and purchasers of pictures began to find their way to her studio. The love of animals is general in the family, and is particularly strong with Rosa. When she talks of animals, however, "it is always of their intelligence; their likeness to human beings; their glossy coats, or the brightness of their eyes, and their picturesque qualities. When she paints in the open air, the dogs lie about her in a circle, and the stag in the park rubs his nose against her like a pet hound."

She began by painting rabbits, and gradually ascended in the scale until at last she painted the horse. It is on her great picture, the "Horse Fair," that her fame very largely rests. This fine painting fairly introduced Rosa Bonheur to the American public, although it was not the first of her pictures brought to this country.

The inspiration for another masterpiece was from a description in a rural novel by George Sand of a plowing scene. The author follows the description of a "young and robust plowman, the rich ground, eight vigorous oxen, and a bright autumn sunlight upon the landscape," with the remark, "It would be a noble subject for a painter." Rosa said, "George Sand is right: she must be fond of animals to describe them in so masterly a manner." She painted the subject in 1849, and called it "Le Labourage Nivernais" or the "Tillage of Niver-

nais." This painting is now in the Luxembourg gallery. "The Hay-making Season in Auvergne" is another painting of large dimensions; this was sent to the Paris Exposition in 1865. Her principal paintings, many of which are famous, number about forty. Between the production of these she has painted many small pictures.

The home of Mlle. Bonheur is in the little village of By, only a few miles from the town of Fontainebleau, which consists of a number of small white plaster cottages with picturesque red-tiled roofs. The chateau, her home, is a many gabled building of brick and stone, surrounded by a high stone wall. Her studios are located in the upper rooms, from some of the windows of which are superb views of the Seine river, and of the park and lawn, which extend to an old historic forest.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the reason for her adoption of masculine attire is not to make herself more conspicuous, but was first used when as a young woman she went to make studies at the horse market and at the abattoirs, where a woman's costume would have been inconvenient and likely to have exposed her to unpleasantness, and as she found the garments comfortable she has continued to wear them.

In 1849 a great loss came to her in the death of her father. He had held, for some time, the position of director of the Communal School of Design for girls. His death came just as the daughter had attained her great success. The position the father had occupied was taken by the daughter and held for ten years, when she resigned and went to live in her chateau on the edge of the forest of Fontainebleau.

Previous to this resignation, as her pictures had marked a steady progress, she had won gold medals of the third and first class, and, at twenty-seven years of age, the "plowing scene" placed her in the front rank of her profession. The "Horse Fair" brought her still greater fame and admitted her to the French salon without examination.

When she went to reside upon her estate, the palace of Fontainebleau was the favorite resort of Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugénie, who were frequent visitors at the chateau. The Empress was a great admirer of Mademoiselle Bonheur, and the cross and ribbon of the Legion of Honor were given to Rosa by her hands.

Henry Bacon, who has visited the artist in her home on two occasions at least, describes her appearance in woman's costume, and also relates the manner in which her first decoration was given, as follows :—

"I was sketching in a corner of the park, when I heard a voice calling the gardener, and, looking in the direction from which it came, saw a woman wearing a large straw hat. It was surely Mademoiselle Rosa, but I hesitated for a moment before saluting her, for she now appeared much taller than when I had met her before. The dress was cut very plain, and over it she wore a jacket of the same material; her collar was held together by a double button, and the only ornament she wore was the red ribbon of the Legion of Honor in her buttonhole. Since then she has received the decoration of the Leopold Cross of Honor from the King of Belgium, said to be the first ever conferred upon a woman; also a decoration from the King of Spain. But it is this red ribbon, her first decoration, that she evidently prefers. It was given by the hand of the Empress. The Emperor, it is said, had been advised to confer the cross of the Legion of Honor upon Rosa Bonheur, but, willing as he certainly was, he hesitated, fearing the popular judgment, which might condemn the giving of this honor to a woman in recognition of talent alone, as up to this time, 1865, the decoration had never been given to a woman, except for acts of great bravery. The Emperor, leaving Paris for a short summer excursion in 1865, left the Empress as Regent. From the imperial residence at Fontainebleau it was only a short drive to By. The countersign at the gates was forced, and unannounced the Empress

entered the studio, where Mademoiselle Rosa was at She rose to receive the visitor, who threw her arms abo neck and kissed her. It was only a short interview. imperial vision had departed, the rumble of the carria the crack of the outriders' whips were lost in the di Then, and not till then, did the artist discover that Empress had given the kiss she had pinned upon her blo cross of the Legion of Honor."

New honors came to her in 1893, when in recognition work at the Columbian Exposition, the president of the Republic bestowed upon her the title of Officer of the Le Honor; an unusual honor but yet most deserved, as sh most famous woman painter of her time.

Another painter of animals, and one who portrays the a fidelity evidently prompted by love, is Henriette R Madame Ronner is of Holland stock and was born in A dam in May, 1821. Her maiden name was Henriette name not unknown to the world of art, for her father, Jo Augustus Knip, was a painter of landscapes which we sidered fine by prominent persons of his time; her grand Nicolaas Frederick Knip, and her aunt, Henriette Ge Knip, were painters of flowers, the latter winning me Paris and Amsterdam.

In Henriette, the artistic faculty thus fostered throu generations was declared at an early age in studies of a from life. The quaint yet vivacious drawings mad only five or six years of age, and which are yet preserve sure promise of the work of the master-hand when devel should be complete.

In reality the artist is self-taught. Her father had s tended her education, and, so far as instruction in art had been given, her father was her only teacher. In when Henriette was but eleven years old, a direful blow upon that father, in the shape of blindness. It came just

ime when the daughter was entering upon serious study. Still his terrible affliction did not prevent him from continuing to e his daughter's instructor, he being also her only critic. very day, from early morning until dark, she worked in his udio, save for two hours' midday rest in a darkened room hich he compelled her to take, fearing lest the strain upon her yes result in the same dreadful fate of blindness as had overaken him.

Her father's desire that she should be a portrait painter was verborne by her strong disposition toward animal painting. ecause of her adherence to this inborn tendency, the world as been a great gainer. There are hundreds of artists who an paint portraits of human beings, but only a very few are entioned as being able faithfully to portray cat life, and Henriette Ronner is first in this list.

Her first picture was displayed at Düsseldorf, in 1837, when ur artist was a girl of sixteen years. This picture was of a at, and was entitled "Cat in a Window." It immediately reeived well-merited praise and, to emphasize its reception, the icture was promptly sold. This early success established her eal reputation, and from the time she was eighteen she earned living for her father and herself by the sale of her pictures.

The death of her father occurred in 1847 in the village of Berkum, and in this village, too, she met Fieco Ronner, the man ho three years later became her husband. The wandering fe she had led to satisfy the restless cravings of her father r change was now ended. The couple newly wedded estabshed themselves in Brussels, and since that time that city has een her home.

This change in her life brought no lessening of hard labor, r she was poor, and so was her husband. The passage of the ears brought ill-health and invalidism to the husband, and veral children were born to the couple, who required her care. uring these years she worked hard, rising early every morn-

ing and painting through every moment of the day that could be spared from her duties to her family. Her specialty at this time was the painting of dogs, not the petted favorites of the rich, but the dogs that were necessary to the working people. In 1860, she exhibited a large canvas entitled the "Friend of Man," the "principal figure in which is a dying dog—still harnessed to a cart—whose eyes are turned with a look of affection toward his weeping master, an old sand-seller, while two other dogs look with dumb brute sympathy on the sorrow that has come to pass." This touching story appealed to the popular heart and from the moment of its exhibition Madame Ronner's fortune was made. Orders for dog pictures were frequent and could not be refused. Meantime, however, she was working at representations of cat life, and since 1870 has painted scarcely anything else. Her work at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876 was represented by a brace of setters quartering a cover, and by a hare pursued by hounds. At the Columbian Exposition in 1893, there were three characteristic subjects exhibited, "Coquetry," "Mischief," and "In Confidence," faithful reproductions of little cat bodies.

Honors have come to her from all over Europe, medals, honorable mentions, and elections to academies. The Cross of the Order of Leopold has been conferred upon her, and specimens of her work find important position in the art galleries of the world.

Her home is now one of luxury, situated on the outskirts of Brussels, where she resides with her son, who is her business manager. She is still a regular and earnest worker, but confines her working time now to three hours of the morning and finds her greatest happiness in her congenial and successful work.

The well-known artist, William M. Chase, says: "There is no use denying the existence of a prejudice among some people against the work done by a woman artist. But I defy anyone

listinguish between two canvases, one of which shall be the duction of a woman, and the other of a man. Women are ch influenced by the work of their teachers, who are usually n. In the selection of a subject, they are becoming daily re and more true to art. Formerly, the decorating of china, painting of sachet bags, the execution of dainty, meaningless ups of flora, seemed to satisfy women. Now they compete h men in the selection of their subjects. In treatment, they what we understand as effeminate. Women are not en-ed with great creative powers, but they are eminently cal-ated to excel in all that demands grace, tenderness, fancy, ick perception, and delicate poetic feeling. I see no reason y women should not attain as great success as men have ained or can attain. Genius has no sex."

This very favorable comment upon woman's artistic ability rom one who has been the instructor of a number of women o have reached a sure footing in the world of art. Mr. Chase been identified with the Art Students' League of New York, is now one of the ten professors who instruct its students, rly one thousand in number, a large proportion of which are ng women. Of the schools throughout this country, at least enty per cent. of the students are women, the studio classes wing a still greater percentage.

The water color exhibitions in the National Academy of sign have often shown women's ability to lead. The paint-s of Kate Greatorex, Rhoda Holmes Nicholls, Dora Wheeler, d Rosina Emmet Sherwood display excellence of no common ler. Miss Mary L. Macomber is an artist whose work has ssed the jury of selection and found a place on the walls of annual exhibition of the Society of American Artists. This mising young artist was born in Fall River, Massachusetts, 1, and her only place of study has been the Museum Art hool at Boston. Her work is all of a religious or imaginative scription, simple and naïve, tender in sentiment, and delicate

Courtois and Rixero at the Carlorossa school,
Lefebvre at the Académie Julien, and that
American teacher in Paris, Charles Lasar. W
was twice an exhibitor in the Salon, and, at t
national Exhibition, a portrait painted by her w
place. Since her return, she has made a large
traits. Much of her time is given to teaching,
enthusiastic and successful, she may exert a s
on the art of Chicago.

Lydia Field Emmet was born in Pelham, N
was highly favored in having, for her first
talented sister, Rosina Emmet Sherwood. W
teens she became, at the Art Students' League, a
Chase, and in later years of Boulanger and Lefe

Miss Emmet's work is familiar, as she has do
and graceful illustrating for children's books a
Her most important work was the wall-paintir
portions, representing music, literature, pain
and embroidery, which all who visited the C
Fair will remember seeing in the hall of the Wo

ston, and "Woman in Arcadia," by Amanda Brewster Sewell, l their stories in color and form, light and shadow, in lan- ıge that will never be forgotten.

In the Hall of Honor, the chief decoration was the ceiling Dora Wheeler Keith; a most successful artist, and the ıghter of Mrs. Candace Wheeler, one of the founders of the w American School of Design, which has done so much for education of our people. Mrs. Keith, better known as Dora ıeeler, was born March 8, 1860, at Jamaica, Long Island, ere the family spent their summers. In childhood she loved l was encouraged to make the acquaintance of animate and nimate nature. While the family were abroad for two years Germany, the simple social influences of the life of that ıple left an impress on the childish mind, making her pecul- ly frank and direct in her intercourse.

This closeness of early life to nature, combined with the ıiliarity of the family with artists and artistic pursuits, gave the artist's point of view. This stood her in good stead when a g and trying illness came to her in years of school life, seem- to promise confirmed invalidism. Two years at this time re spent in Paris, confined to one room and one position, but weeks and months were used in incessant sketching of ry person and thing in sight. This pictorial representa- n and composition, the artistic memory now supplying the terial which had been gathered in those early days and ırs of close intimacy with nature, formed the one alleviation d amusement of her long illness.

When health returned, the artistic faculty continued to velop, and upon returning home she entered the studio of . Wm. M. Chase as a pupil and received her first lessons in inting. About this time Prang offered competitive prizes. ss Wheeler entered the list and won one of the first year zes in company with such artists as Vedder and Caryl Cole- ın. Double prizes were offered the next year, decision to be

made by popular vote and the vote of artists. Curiously enough, the vote of the two bodies fell upon one picture, which was Miss Wheeler's. This established her reputation and her name was enrolled with names of other well-known artists. Two years more were passed in the art schools of Paris. This artist is well known as a painter of portraits and of "pictures which embody the mysteries and fancies which stand outside the boundary of actual and daily life."

Miss Mary Cassatt, who has a place among painters who sit in high places, is an American who has lived in Paris and London for many years. She painted for the tympanum of the great gallery in the Woman's Building at the World's Fair, a picture which not only enriches Chicago, but the whole country. It is sufficient justification for the existence of the building that it has called out such a work from the hand of a woman for its adornment. A critic has said of her work :—

"If the signature upon each picture were not 'Mary Cassatt,' it is doubtful, so far as execution goes, whether any observer would suspect that the painter is a woman. Miss Cassatt's work is very seldom defiant of her sex. To all appearances, in technical attainment and achievement, Miss Cassatt is simply unconscious of her sex, and would put him who examines her work into similar mood. Her hand is quite as firm as a man's. It is a great deal bolder and more precise than that of many of her brethren at home and abroad."

It is impossible to mention all the famous women painters in the space devoted to this chapter. It is well known that they have always excelled in portraiture, which is a difficult if not the highest branch of art.

As designers of illustrations for books, magazines, and the many pictorial papers now published, they are gifted with the ability which insures success. Mary Hallock Foote illustrates her own writings, and her drawings repeat, in eloquent language, the events and conditions her words portray. The name

lice Barber Stephens is often seen connected with finely ıted illustrations. She renders the most homely subjects a sincerity and truth that we enjoy, having no knowledge ɜ hours of patient, conscientious study and search for just ·ight bit of costume or accessory needed to present the ght in picture language. While her successes in black and ɜ have been many, her talents have by no means been con- to it. In the realm of color she is equally at home. Mrs. ıens is an instructor in the School of Design in Phila- ıia, which city is her home.

'hile the number of women who have acquired renown in rt of painting is large, probably not more than a score have ned celebrity in sculpture. Mallets and chisels, lumps of :lay, modeling composition, blocks of marble, castings of ze, do not appear to be the natural implements and mate- for womanly labor.

ıere may seem to be special hindrances to the success of an in sculpture, but, if we may judge from the work nplished by those who have entered this field of art, we ertain that the hindrance does not lie in lack of power in ɜption or invention. But all obstacles are overcome by ıs and determination, and the world is glad to recognize ɜ women who have successfully brought out the "form of ty, and expression of life, from the shapeless and silent ɜ."

ıe first to be considered in this connection is Harriet G. ner. She was born in Watertown, Massachusetts, Octo- ı, 1830. Her father was a physician, who, fearing lest ımption, which had caused the death of his wife and elder hter, should seize this one also, determined that the preser- ın of her health and the development of her body should first attention, and nothing should be allowed to hinder its and healthy growth. So the young Harriet learned to row, ı, skate, shoot, and ride Books did not suit her in these

early days. Of education and culture, in the sense of schools, during the years of childhood she had little. Her education, chiefly in the lessons of nature, was gained out of doors. A favorite resort was a clay pit near her home, where she spent many hours in modeling horses, dogs, and other objects which attracted her attention.

When she was finally placed at school she proved to be a very intractable pupil—"hard to manage"—and was not retained very long in any school until, when sixteen, she entered the celebrated school of Miss Sedgwick, in Lenox, Massachusetts, remaining there three years. When, in her nineteenth year, she returned home, she announced her determination to make sculpture her life pursuit.

She entered the studio of Mr. Stephenson, in Boston, for lessons in drawing and modeling. To perfect herself in anatomy, she desired the knowledge to be gained only in the dissecting room. The Boston Medical College would not admit a woman, but the Medical College of St. Louis afforded the required facilities. She expresses herself as under great obligations to Professor McDowell, who gave her most efficient aid, and sometimes private lessons.

When Miss Hosmer returned to her home, her father fitted up a small studio in his garden. Here she produced her first work in marble—a reduced copy of Canova's bust of Napoleon. Here, too, "Hesper," her first original and ideal work, was wrought. This finished, she said to her father: "Now I am ready to go to Rome." She went to Rome, arriving November 12, 1852. She was fortunate in gaining admission as a pupil to the studio of John Gibson, the renowned English sculptor, who was then in the zenith of his fame. The first winter was spent in modeling from the antique. Her first design was a bust of Daphne, speedily followed by the Medusa; her first full length figure, Œnone, the nymph of Mount Ida; and two years after she filled an order for the Mercantile Library of St. Louis, with

ı life size statue of Beatrice Cenci. Her "Zenobia" was "her irst adventure into the regions of historic art, and she returned vearing the laurels of success." The statue received the high-ɜst praise. It was exhibited in Boston, and was finally pur-ɜhased by A. W. Griswold of New York.

While at home in 1860, Miss Hosmer was commissioned to lesign a bronze portrait statue of Colonel Thomas Hart Ben-on. Her friends knew her ability to depict tenderness, grace, ınd beauty as shown in the feminine characters she had por-rayed. Could she with equal skill set forth the strong, rugged, nassive qualities of the famous statesman, an enterprise re-ıuiring the most masculine capacity? The next year photo-ɡraphs of her model were submitted and approved. The plaster ɜast was sent from Rome to Munich to be cast at the royal 'oundry. Although the statue arrived in due time at the city ɔf its destination, it was not set up until the 27th of May, 1868, vhen its dedication occurred with imposing religious and ɔatriotic ceremonies.

Miss Hosmer would have enjoyed abundant patronage vorking on busts, but, preferring to work on ideal subjects, she ıas given the creations of her own imagination a solid, endur-ng fame. The London *Art Journal* says: "The works of Miss Hosmer, Hiram Powers, and others we might name, have placed American sculpture on a level with the best modern sculpture ɔf Europe."

Miss Emma Stebbins of New York has devoted years to study, improving every opportunity to cultivate taste and disci-ɔline ability in sculpture. Her work in Rome has been accom-ɔlished under most improving influences, and not only deserves ɔut receives compliments from people at home. She has made ı statuesque adornment for a fountain in Central Park, New York, and a statue of Horace Mann, designed by her, orna-ments the city of Columbus, Ohio.

Miss Landor of Salem, Massachusetts, has modeled busts at

Rome and elsewhere. Mrs. Ames is famous for a fine bust Abraham Lincoln. Miss Foley of Vermont succeeds in h specialty of relievos, and has made most excellent likenesses this style of Longfellow and Bryant, and has also made sever ideal heads. Anne Whitney's statue of Godiva brought h into favorable notice.

Miss Vinnie Ream was born in 1850 in a log-cabin on t banks of the Mississippi in Wisconsin. Her opportunities f education were very scanty; but observation developed h powers, so that after the civil war, when she drifted, as did many others, to Washington, she succeeded in obtaining clerkship in the postal department. One day she chanced see Mills, the sculptor, modeling; watching him a few minut she said, "I can do that, too," and took a lump of clay aw with her, returning it to Mills in a few days formed into t head of an Indian. The work was strong, giving a vivid e pression of Indian character. Miss Ream immediately beg studying and working under the direction of Mills, with wh success is well known. Two years after her studies began, s was given an order for a statue of Lincoln, for which s received $5,000 in the plaster, and $5,000 more when complet in marble. This statue stands in the rotunda of the Capitol Washington, and was unveiled in 1871. It stands six feet fo inches high; and although the entire work is excellent t head is particularly fine. Miss Ream has also made busts Greeley, Sherman, and other prominent persons.

In 1894 the society in New York known as the Associat Pioneers of the Territorial Days of California, solicited co petitive designs for the General Fremont statue, and select as most appropriate and artistic that submitted by Mrs. C Hinton Huneker of New York. In specifying as to the natu of the design, the committee, which offered a prize of $1000 requested that the story of the Great Rock on Fremont Peak where General Fremont engraved the cross as a symbol

he Christian faith, should be told in an artistic and impres-
ive manner. Designs were submitted by several well-known
culptors in various sections of the country, and the subject
f the design was expressed in various ways, but none were
s simply and at the same time as artistically carried out as
Irs. Huneker's.

The figure of General Fremont is to be of bronze, eight
eet in height, and mounted on a pedestal of naturally rough
tone, fourteen feet in height, with a bronze panel, twelve
eet long at its base. On the panel is a bas-relief of the explor-
ng party, headed by the "Pathfinder," making their way to
he spot where General Fremont carved the cross. Concern-
ng this occasion, General Fremont wrote: "Here, not un-
nindful of the custom of early travelers and explorers in our
ountry, I engraved on that rock of the far West a symbol
f the Christian faith. I made on the hard granite the impres-
ion of a large cross, which I covered with a black prepara-
ion of india rubber, well calculated to resist the influence
f wind and weather." This statue will be the first great work
f the talented and fortunate young sculptor, who is only twenty-
ive years old. Her talent is an inheritance from her mother,
Irs. Howard Hinton, under whose instruction she had been for
ears before entering as a pupil the classes of St. Gaudens.
he was born at Rhinebeck-on-the-Hudson, and is now the wife
f James G. Huneker.

Mary Thornycroft of England, who died in the early months
f 1895, was a sculptor of high rank. She was the daugh-
er of John Francis, and early exhibited a love for the plas-
ic art, of which her father was also a professor of note. She
orked in his studio, having as a fellow pupil the gentleman
ho subsequently became her husband. Her progress in the
rofession was rapid, and soon busts and other of her works
ere to be seen at the Royal Academy, where she continued to
e represented for years.

After her marriage to Mr. Thornycroft, the young cou went to Rome, where she met with Thorwaldsen and Gibson, w expressed great admiration of the talent her work exhibit When the Queen asked Gibson to model some of the royal c dren, he recommended Mrs. Thornycroft as being better qu fied for the task than he. This led to a number of commissi from the royal family, the results of which are seen at Wind Osborne, and Buckingham palace.

The lady's sculptures were looked for with expectation, were received with unqualified admiration. Her reputat rested not alone on busts, for she produced several beaut ideal statues. "The Flower Girl" and "The Skipping Gi which were exhibited at the Paris Exposition of 1865, are g samples of Mrs. Thornycroft's fine conception and mast modeling. Her son, Hamo W. Thornycroft, R. A., is als sculptor of high repute, and her daughter, Miss Helen, i flower and landscape painter of more than local reputation.

This subject would by many be deemed incomplete, wer mention made of the new movement which began in this c try in the years immediately following the end of the Rebell

It has been said, and with a good degree of truth, that artistic taste was lacking in the American people; so the couraging thing about this new development was, that it native and popular. Any movement with us, that is to ab must be one that touches the average citizen; *must* be natior *must* be popular. This is because we are so intensely natior because all institutions have their being in the comr people; and, as we are considering art, because the *citizen* the only patron of art in this country. "The artist must and the people must feed him. Before they will pay for they must have sufficient culture to care for it dollars' wo and it must be of a nature to reach their sympathies. Eve monarchial England, Ruskin perceives the necessity for be ning at the bottom to build up national taste, and he addre

olumes of letters upon art 'To the Workmen and Laborers of reat Britain.'"

The nation's new sense of the beautiful seemed to awake at he time of the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876. ndeed, this element began to be seen and felt soon after the lose of the civil war, in the demand for more artistic inteior finishing and furnishing, for better form and coloring in vall paper, floor coverings, upholstery, and drapery. An Amerean school of art had been long talked of, and this new birth f popular feeling seemed to indicate its beginning.

The movement was born of patriotism, and inspired by the xposition of 1876. The specimens of decorative art from the outh Kensington School in the English exhibit impressed Mrs. Thomas M. Wheeler of New York by their lack of origiiality and freedom, and she declared, "We can do better than hat in this country without any school!" and set about the vork immediately. Under her influence, the Decorative Art Society was instituted. This organization was composed of wo hundred ladies of New York. The plan was national, philanthropic, and commercial; in other words, it was intended o serve art, help women make money, and if possible to excel he English. By this means, the range of artistic work which women could do was greatly enlarged. China painting, needlework, decoration upon wood, and other minor arts were most thoroughly taught.

From this nucleus there were before long offshoots in two directions, one in a higher, the other in a more rudimentary, line. To Mrs. Wheeler, anxious to help *all* women, came the question, "What shall be done with the labor of women not artists?" The answer to this question found expression in the formation of The Woman's Exchange, which, of the three societies, has spread most widely. All our leading cities now boast of Exchanges, and the "Yankee notion" has also taken root in Canada, England, and Germany.

The other branch of the work was called The Associ Artists. This, as first organized, was directed by Mrs. Whe Mr. Louis C. Tiffany, and two other gentlemen, also artists. formed a more compact organization, to attempt a hi development of work. Mrs. Wheeler had charge of the ne work department; one of the gentlemen, of interior v decoration, another of glass painting, and the third of the c scheme. They undertook the interior finish of rooms and ho in accordance with entirely new and artistic theories. An their first public undertakings were the decoration of Madison Square Theater, including the drop curtain; the fi of the "Veterans' Room" in the Seventh Regiment Arm and parts of the Union League Club House.

Mrs. Wheeler's department of the work grew so rapi and opened out so great possibilities of creation and deve ment, that she decided to make it a special and separate en prise. This was done in 1882, retaining the name, Associa Artists. From that time to the present the enterprise has b managed and worked by women only. They now have to with decoration as used or applied to textile fabrics, such hangings, draperies, tapestry.

The *chef d'œuvre* of these artists is their tapestry w "It has the definiteness and freedom of drawing, and the d cacy and feeling of color of an oil painting; nay, deft fing with a needle and thread can produce effects in colors that painter's brush cannot, because colored threads reflect and c plement each other. The process and fabrics used were inven by Mrs. Wheeler and are protected by letters-patent in t country and in Europe."

A portrait was woven in this way, thread by thread, faithful as to be preferred by the family, to the best work t had of painter or photographer. The large pieces of tapes exhibited at the Columbian Exposition done by the artists cited great admiration. One of them, the "Zuñi Indian Gi

by Mrs. Rosina Emmet Sherwood, and another, "Hiawatha," by Miss Dora Wheeler, occupied the hands of two or three embroiderers every day for nearly a year. The pictures are life size, and are very characteristic studies. There were eight other tapestries in this series, mainly upon events of American history. The designs are bold and original, and only a very close examination convinces that they are not oil paintings.

It seems proper that the work of designing or decoration as used for industrial purposes should be considered in this connection. At the close of the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia, there was no practical woman designer for any industrial manufacturing purpose. Women in England, Scotland, France, Belgium, and America sometimes assisted male designers, and occasionally put their designs on paper—mainly pleasing effects for wall papers, textiles, jewelry, and novelties. These *were suggestions*, however, and not practical working designs; they could not be manufactured from directly, and before being either woven or printed must be subjected to redrawing and recoloration by a practical man.

Now the situation is greatly changed, is vastly different, for there are in our own country alone hundreds of women who have acquired or are acquiring the art of practical applied industrial designs—women whose work can be carried directly from their hands to the loom or the printing drum and no other hand need intervene.

Mrs. Florence Cory, the head of an Industrial Art School in New York, sums up a few of the achievements of American women in the applied arts, as follows: "Women have designed successfully for jewelry, lace, book covers, stained glass, oilcloths, carpets of all grades, rugs, wall papers, silk, table linen, dress goods, ribbons, handkerchief borders, and many other things. Miss Emma Humphreys of Delaware, Ohio, has for a number of years been a most successful designer for wall papers and printed silks. Miss Carrie Smith of Smithville, L. I.,

designs for foreign manufacturers. The pup
Industrial Art and Technical Design for Wor
ingrain carpets for Leeds and York, Englanc
bad, Austria; toweling and table linen for
and embroidery and matting for Japan.

The superintendent of the famous Tiffany
Decorating Company in New York city is M
ces Mary Hardincourt. She is French, and h
in an Austrian convent, where she learned
art embroidery and do painting. With thi
easy for her to direct and guide the workmer
mechanically the bits of stained glass. Some
tiful and artistic house and altar furnishin
Fair were made under her direction.

Indeed, the field for invention in decorati
because genius may touch every item and p
carry into the innermost life of the whole p
influence of beauty.

STORY OF ARCHITECTURE.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRANDEST ART.

HE art of building seems to have ever been almost as instinctive in man as it is in the birds; and to be exercised at first for much the same reason, namely, to le him a home-nest, and a protection for himself and his ing against the elements. When limited to providing for necessities of nature it cannot well be called an art. er the cave-dwellers, nor the nomads who reside in tents, hose who live in huts of mud, or sticks, or ice, can be lered artistic people. Yet full half of the present popula- f the earth are to be found in just those kinds of homes,— ng and living as their primeval forefathers did. Three of the world's inhabitants are yet in a state of barbarism, t a sketch of the world's architecture is necessarily limited a few of its people, and a fragment of its area. It was nore circumscribed in ancient times. Indeed, outside of , Chaldea, Greece, and Rome, it would be difficult to find ing in the ancient world worthy to be called architecture. ose lands, therefore, we must go for knowledge of this it art as of so many others. History obliges us to con- them in the order named, for the oldest and greatest ation of the ancient world was for ages confined to the of the Nile. In that valley are now to be found not only dest, but the most wonderful and stupendous specimens n's handiwork on earth.

e architecture of ancient Egypt in most respects easily

overshadowed all elsewhere to be found. Even now its ruins are the astonishment of the most learned architects, and of the most experienced travelers. What it must have been in the days of its glory can now be but faintly conjectured. Herodotus, called the father of history, visited Egypt about 450 B. C., and speaks in this wise of one of its works then, probably, nineteen hundred years old, that was situated near Memphis, the famous temple of the Labyrinth with its three thousand chambers, one half of them below the ground: "The upper chambers I myself passed through and saw, and what I say concerning them is from my own observation. Of the underground chambers, I can only speak from the report, for the keepers of the building could not be got to show them, since they contained, as they said, the sepulchers of the kings [the *Usertesidea*] who built the labyrinth, and also those of the sacred crocodiles; thus it is from hearsay only that I can speak of the lower chambers. The upper chambers, however, I saw with my own eyes, and found them to excel all other human productions. The passage through the houses and the various windings of the path across the courts excited in me infinite admiration, as I passed from the courts into the chambers, and from chambers into colonnades, and from colonnades into fresh houses, and again from these into courts unseen before. The roof was throughout of stone like the walls, and the walls were carved all over with figures. Every court was surrounded with a colonnade, which was built of white stone exquisitely fitted together. At the corner of the labyrinth stands a pyramid forty fathoms high, with large figures engraved on it, and which is entered by a subterranean passage;" and he unhesitatingly declares that not all the temples of the Greeks if put together could equal it either in cost or splendor.

Within the present century the traveler, Belzoni, visiting Egypt (1815), says of the ruins of the temples at Thebes, one of them being twelve hundred feet long: "It is absolutely impos-

ble to imagine the scene displayed, without seeing it. The ıost sublime ideas that can be formed from the most magnifi-ɜnt specimens of our present architecture would give a very ıcorrect picture of these ruins. It appeared to me like enter-ıg a city of the giants, who, after a long conflict were all estroyed, leaving ruins of their various temples, as the only roofs of their former existence. * * * The temple of Luxor ɜight hundred and twenty feet in length) presents to the aveler at once one of the most splendid groups of Egyptian randeur. The extensive propylæum, with the two obelisks ıd colossal statues in the front, the thick groups of enormous ɔlumns, the variety of apartments, and the sanctuary it con-ıins, the beautiful ornaments which adorn every part of the alls and columns, cause, in the astonished traveler, an obliv-ɔn of all that he has seen before."

The learned Professor Champollion says of these same ruins, hich he had visited (1828): "All that I had seen, all that I ad admired on the left bank [the Nile], appeared miserable in ɔmparison with the gigantic conceptions by which I was ırrounded at Karnak. I shall take care not to attempt to escribe anything; for either my description would not express ıe thousandth part of what ought to be said, or, if I drew a ıint sketch I should be taken for an enthusiast, or, perhaps, for mad man. It will suffice to add, that no people, either ncient or modern, ever conceived the art of architecture on so ıblime and so grand a scale as the ancient Egyptians." Some gyptologists hold that the most of Egypt's famous sanctuaries, s those at Edfu, Abydos, and Denderah, were founded by the rehistoric Hor-Shesu—"followers of Horus." But these tem-les have been, of course, frequently repaired. Eleven hundred ears before Christ, the high priests of Amen repaired at vast xpense those at Thebes, while various monarchs often spent he wealth of empires in restoring and embellishing them. So ıte as the Roman occupation of Egypt the Cæsars rebuilt and

restored the old temples of the Egyptian gods, spending enormous sums upon them; Tiberius and Claudius decorated the temples at Denderah and Kom-Ombus, Caligula those at Coptos, and the Antonines those at Esneh and Philæ. The great earthquake of 22 B. C. destroyed Thebes, and thereafter it was only a place for pilgrims and travelers who sought there to hear again the vocal Memnon of the classic writers.

The sore troubles of the third century of our era and the spread of Christianity brought a final end to all of Egypt's wonderful art and greatness. But eighteen hundred years before those marvelous temples at Luxor and Karnak of which these travelers have spoken were built, there were in existence two mighty structures, that abide to our day, and are now, as ever, the sore puzzle and astonishment of men, to wit, the Great Pyramid of Gizeh, and the Sphinx. The latter is supposed to be the effigy of the Egyptian god, Horus, and Professor Maspero, Mariette (bey), and others, suppose it was built before the time of Mena, by the prehistoric Hor-Shesu. It is at the outer edge of the Libyan plateau, on the ridge north of the second Pyramid of Gizeh, and is hewn out of the living rock, its figure being that of a crouching lion one hundred and ninety feet in length, with the capped and bearded head of a man, whose shoulders are thirty-six feet in breadth, and whose head from the chin to top of forehead measured twenty-eight feet, six inches. The paws of the image are extended in front fifty feet, and between them is a monumental stone, having on it the name of the monarch Khafra, who is said to have dedicated the image. A small temple was at the base, and some suppose a subterranean passage connected it with one of the great pyramids. Both the Ptolemies and the Cæsars in their day covered its paws and breast with stone facings to cover up the ravages time had made upon it. It is now largely a ruin, covered to the chin with the drifting sands of the desert on whose solemn wastes it has been gazing for five thousand years.

'ho built the Great Pyramid, and for what purpose, is as
nknown. In its internal structure it differs radically from
nearly one hundred other pyramids of Egypt, and if, as
rally supposed, it, like those, was designed and built for a
's sepulcher, it is not merely the oldest of them, but is by
he most costly and most wonderful sepulcher ever built by
. The Jews, so late as Josephus' time, held that it was
before the Flood, and in anticipation of that event, a tradi-
they shared in common with the Arabs. Sir Gardiner Wil-
on and Poole put the date of its erection at 2450 B. C., while
sen thought it was as old as 3209 B. C., and Mariette names
B. C. as the probable period of its erection. Herodotus
us that ten years were spent in building the vast prepara-
works for it, a hundred thousand men being thus employed,
gangs of workmen being replaced every three months, and
the old chroniclers tell us that it took three hundred and
thousand men, slaves of the king, and ten years more to
it. It stands on a ridge at the edge of the Libyan desert
covers about thirteen acres of ground, and contains five
on tons of worked granite and marble, or nearly ninety
on cubic feet of masonry, being the largest structure of
st solid masonry known on earth. It is said to have been
hundred and eighty and two thirds feet high when built,
the apex is now some thirty feet less. Each side at
base was seven hundred and sixty-one and one half feet
ngth, or nearly one sixth of a mile. The slant to the top is
five hundred and seventy-four feet. The sides had origi-
a casing of differently colored polished granite stones so
fully joined together from the top to the base as to appear
but one block, the casing being begun at the top with a
hed capstone. This casing has been at various periods
oved to Cairo and elsewhere for building purposes.
his pyramid stands exactly on the thirtieth parallel of lati-
, its four sides facing the four cardinal points of the compass

with a geometric exactness surpassing any other structure on the earth, each of these sides being almost exactly the square of the height, their width being eleven sevenths of the height. Whether the architect was the mysterious Philition of Herodotus ("They commonly call the pyramids after Philition, a shepherd who at that time fed his flocks about the place." Rawlinson's Herodotus, vol. ii. p. 176), or not, this his structure is, beyond all others, a marvel if, as some of the most eminent scholars of our day affirm, he has made it to be a memorial of that wonderful mathematical π proportion and a solution of the problem of the squaring of the circle, and has taught us in its symbols the weight of the earth, its diameter, its poles, its latitudes, its mean temperature, its land distribution, and their exact bearings toward the four cardinal points, the rotation and rotundity of the earth, the notation of the true year, the earth's revolution around the sun, its mean distance from the sun, the great processional cycle of the heavens, both as to its beginning and length, the true standard and system of weights and measures, and the commencement of epochs of human history and their consummation, all of which things they maintain are found embodied in it. But, whatever may be our opinion of these things, no one can dispute Lepsius' statement that, "To the Pyramid of Cheops" (its reputed builder) "the first link of our whole monumental, history is fastened immovably, not for Egyptian, but for universal, history. * * * The builders of the Great Pyramid seem to assert their right to form the commencement of monumental history." Whoever they were, those unknown builders and architects were unquestionably the most talented of mechanics, and the most accomplished of artists. They knew how to erect, in most enduring form, the mightiest stone buildings man ever saw, with no danger of the structure being crushed by its own weight, or cracked, or swerved from its foundations. "They played no tricks with gravitation, as the Gothic and Renaissance builders did."

As sculptors they apparently thought nothing of chan-
eling, fluting, and sculpturing in bas-relief the very hardest of
ones, doing it with an ease and precision unknown to any
ter times. They adorned Luxor's massive pillars with
onderfully carved campaniform capitals eleven and one half
et in diameter at the neck, eighteen feet in diameter at the
p, and eleven and one half feet in height, a square die sur-
ounting them. They erected before that temple huge obelisks
solid squared stone, slightly tapering to the top, the shafts
ing seventy-seven feet in height, covering with the greatest
se those hard stones with inscriptions and hieroglyphics
hose fine cut faces and edges seem to have been done but
sterday. One Queen Hatshepsut boasts in her inscription of
ving in seven months, quarried, shaped, finished, transported,
d erected at Karnak, a shaft of solid stone one hundred and
ne feet in height! Those old artists carved giant colossi in
rms of men and gods, sitting like the vocal Memnon, fifty feet
height, while one built by Rameses II. at Tanis was, accord-
g to measurements made by W. M. F. Petrie, ninety feet high
ithout and one hundred and twenty feet high with its
edestal. Many of the obelisks have been carried by the suc-
ssive conquerors of Egypt to other lands, thirteen being now
Rome, the largest, that at the St. John Lateran, having a
aft one hundred and five feet seven inches in height, and
ne feet eight inches in thickness at the base, and is more
an three thousand three hundred years old. Ismail Pasha
few years ago gave one to the United States, which was
ought down to Alexandria, Egypt, from Heliopolis, the City
the Sun, more than two thousand years ago. It is of red
anite of Syene, the shaft being seventy feet high, with a base
ameter of seven feet seven inches, and bears the name of
hothmes III. (1500 B. C.), and ovals of Rameses the Great
350 B. C.), he who for nine years is said to have led forth his
eat army of six hundred and fifty thousand soldiers, conquer-

ing the nations from the Ganges to Thrace. This obelisk is now standing in Central Park, New York city. Moses and Aaron looked upon it and read its inscriptions in their day. The mighty conquerors, Darius, Cambyses, Alexander the Great, the Ptolemies, the Cæsars, with their armies saw it. Mark Antony and Cleopatra, Pythagoras, Herodotus, Strabo, Clement of Alexandria, and Anastasius,—what a list of the world's celebrities once walked and rode before it, and now that Old World's unknown architect of well-nigh four thousand years ago, he who planned and formed it, salutes, through this labor of his hands, his brother architects of the New World!

The artists, too, of those ancient times, were skillful in use of the brush as well as of the chisel, more especially in their monumental decorations, and they understood well the harmony of shades and values and half tones and rhythm, albeit their portraits were all in profile—so lacking perspective. They, however, blended natural and fictitious lines together with rare skill in putting a full face, eye, and head upon a full face bust in their profile work, and they often finished the details of costume and ornament so minutely in their paintings as to require a magnifying glass properly to distinguish them. Palettes of the fifth dynasty (2800 B. C.) have been found containing compartments for red, black, brown, white, yellow, blue and green colors, and those also of the eighteenth dynasty (1500 B. C.) that have three kinds of yellow, three of brown, two each of red, blue, and green. Their black was made of calcined bones of animals, the white of gypsum mixed with white of egg or honey, the yellows of ocher or sulphuret of arsenic, the blue of silicate of copper, or pulverized lapis lazuli, or of blue frit mixed with the copper, and the reds of ocher, cinnabar, or vermilion. The artist kept his colors in tiny bags, and mixed them as wanted with gum tragacanth and water, and applied them with reeds or fine hair brushes. They made rare figures and statues of stone and metal, one of which, the "Cross-legged

Scribe" in the Louvre collection at Paris, is considered to be six thousand years old, of the old empire times, and is equal to any ever made for its fidelity to nature, while the "Kneeling Scribe" of the Gizeh collection of the same antiquity is an exact reproduction of the Egyptian as he may be seen to-day in any little town of upper Egypt.

The sculptors of Memphis preferred to work on limestone, those of Thebes on red and gray granite, while the Saites seemed to delight in attacking the basalt, breccia, and serpentine. The valley of the Nile furnished them limestone, sandstone, alabaster, and red granite; their diorite, basalt, black granite, porphyry, red and yellow breccia, came from the desert; and gray granite and diorite from the Hammamat valley, and emerald from the mines on the Red Sea border, where slaves and criminals labored under hired negro soldiers from Libya. The largest sandstone quarries were at Silsilis, the most extensive limestone quarries at Massarat, opposite Memphis, and at Turah from whence a canal ran to the Nile. With the exception of the sapphire, ruby, and diamond (none of which are found in the ruins), they used all of the so-called precious stones for ornaments and decorations, finishing them as finely as is now done by the most skilled workmen. Some of their obelisks were covered with plates of gold forged with hammer and anvil. They made images three cubits or more in height of gold and of silver, or of the two combined. Sculptures were made of ivory, of ebony, and precious stones combined with gold. Rameses II. and III. had thrones of solid gold set with precious stones. They made golden vessels, cups, vases, and plates for the temples and for the use of the great; they covered the doors of the temples and adorned bas-reliefs and statues with gold, and their mummies were often actually cuirassed in gold. They were great lovers of jewelry, the museums now containing many ornamental chains of all sizes and patterns, some being over five feet in length, some heavy,

some light and flexible as the finest Venetian filigree work, though the original owners and wearers have been dead for more than five thousand years.

Their silver came chiefly from Asia in rings, sheets, and bricks; gold in rings and bricks from Syria, and in nuggets and gold dust from the Soudan. Vast quantities were also brought in as the spoils of many wars. The rich and great had large and sumptuously appointed palaces, with decorated walls and ceilings, and carved doors, and large walled grounds containing storehouses, summer pavilions, groves of trees and plants, and ponds stocked with aquatic fowls and fish. The houses of the common people clustered around the temples, where at length a city was formed. The houses of the middle classes were of brick, containing five or six rooms, doorways arched and doors often of stone; the ground floors of brick or earth. The houses were walled on the street side with an opening gate in the wall, the roofs were generally flat, and the cooking and washing were quite generally done there, as well as the gossiping and the sleeping. The windows were few and irregularly placed. The homes of the *fellahin*, or laborers, were apparently made then, as they are now, of a wickerwork of palm branches filled and coated with mud, and kneaded by the feet, without windows, rarely a hole in the roof to let out smoke, the roof being of palm branches covered with a thick coating of mud, and the floors of the same substance. When their houses needed repairing they put on more mud, so that their walls were frequently from one to two feet thick.

The immense government storehouses and stables for its cattle and horses were of brick or stone. Its architects made vast drainage canals and lakes, and great forts whose walls were frequently twenty feet thick and cased with stones, but of their great works naught is now left save ruins—ruins everywhere. Those of Thebes extend on both sides of the Nile two and a quarter miles north and south, and three and a

half miles east and west, the principal group being at Karnak on the east side, Luxor (once connected with it by an avenue of Sphinxes, now in ruins) being two miles south. Still farther south towards the second cataract are the great ruins of the temples of Edfu, Denderah, Philæ, and Kalabsheh ; the Nile on both sides for many miles being well-nigh lined with ruins of long vanished greatness of city and temple such as is nowhere else to be found on earth.

Next to Egypt's architectural ruins the most magnificent yet to be seen are those at Baalbec, a once populous and mighty city, situated on the plain of Bukaa, Syria, at the base of the Anti-Lebanon. Its architecture is of the Grecian order, and excels even that of Thebes in the richness of its friezes, doorways and symmetry of columns. The most important ruin in it to-day is that of the old temple of Baal, its great court being four hundred and forty feet in length, by three hundred and seventy in breadth, its sides adorned with magnificent columns, niches, and chambers. A second court, as richly ornamented, was two hundred and twenty-seven feet in length, by one hundred and seventeen in breadth, and the innermost or sacred part was one hundred and sixty feet by eighty-five feet. Earthquakes have thrown down most of its great columns. This temple's foundation was raised some twenty feet above the level of the ground, thus allowing for numerous great vaults. The solid hewed stones of its foundation are the largest known, some of them measuring ninety feet in length, eighteen feet wide, and thirteen feet thick ; others are sixty-four, sixty-three, sixty-two, etc., feet in length, and from thirteen to eighteen feet wide, and thirteen feet thick. The material of the temple was of limestone, marble, and granite. The city in its glory contained many great palaces and monuments now turned to dust.

Likewise, Babylon, the pride of the Chaldeans, for two hundred years the richest and most beautiful city in the world, has

vanished from the earth, leaving only great mounds of rubbish to mark the place where once stood the most wonderful of all the cities man has built. We have space for only the briefest mention of its most prominent architecture. They who wish for an elaborate description of the city are referred to Herodotus and others who visited it. It lay foursquare, with the Euphrates river running diagonally through it, and was surrounded by a wall of brick each side of which was, according to Herodotus, fourteen miles in length, and eighty-five feet in breadth, and three hundred and thirty-five feet in height, having on the top two hundred and fifty square towers arranged in pairs on the outer and inner edges, the dimensions of the wall being so vast that a four-horse chariot could easily be turned between these towers, and six chariots be driven abreast upon the fifty-six miles circuit. The material for building this immense wall is said to have been taken from a vast moat or canal that surrounded the city outside the wall, which moat was faced with brickwork and filled with water as an additional defense to the city.

There were fifty main streets, one hundred and fifty feet wide, running at right angles through the city, making six hundred and twenty-five great squares each of nearly one hundred acres; these streets connected with twenty-five immense gates of brass at each of the four sides of the city. The river banks were faced with brick and asphalt within the city, with a high wall on each bank. Great gates of wrought brass at the street ferries and at the bridges guarded it on the river side, a palace being at each end of these bridges and connected with each other by subterranean passages. The river entered and left the city under huge arches guarded by gates. According to Megasthenes the city had in addition to many canals on its western side an artificial lake one hundred and sixty miles in circumference, and seventy-five feet deep, to furnish it water in case the river should be cut off, and into which to turn the

er when repairs to the walls were to be made. Large subter-
ıean banqueting rooms made of brass, extending under the
er, are said to have been one of the city's attractions. The
'al palace was a quadrangular edifice of great size and mag-
icence, so vast that the stateliest palaces of modern architects
uld seem like the log house of the pioneer if put by its side.
was surrounded by a triple wall or rampart of masonry, the
ter one nearly seven miles in extent, and the inner one more
ın two miles. Three of the bronze gates to the palace were
enormous as to require machinery to open and shut them.
These palace grounds contained the celebrated Hanging
rdens, erected by Nebuchadnezzar for his Median wife,
ayitis. It was a rectangle whose sides were each four
ndred feet, and it was surrounded by a wall twenty-two feet
thickness. The terraces were raised on arches one above
other, and were covered with large stones, a thick layer of
halt, two courses of cemented bricks and plates of lead to
vent leakage, then earth was heaped on and large trees and
pical plants brought from afar and planted. The extreme
ght of the several terraces is said to have been three hundred
l fifty feet. It was watered by pipes supplied from an
draulic machine working on the plan of Archimedes' screw.
was ascended by gorgeous stairways with pavilions for
ting at each terrace. Near the palace stood the Temple of
lus, resting on a square basement of solid masonry whose
es were each six hundred feet. The several squares com-
sing it were each seventy-five feet high, and piled one on the
ıer in pyramid style, with an outside winding staircase to the
mmit, on which was the chapel of Belus and a golden image
the god valued in modern currency at seventeen and one half
illions of dollars, the whole of the idols, and lions, and serpents,
d vessels of solid gold and silver it contained, being said to be
rth the enormous sum of two hundred million dollars.

After a *siege of about* two years, Cyrus the Great took the

But the then improbable utterances of th
uttered in the days of her grandeur, have c
great Babylon for her nameless wickedness
robberies, and pitiless oppression of her vast
who made her great, is now "a desolation
ment," without an inhabitant.

Nineveh, "that great city," for seventy ge
tal of an empire, a city whose dimensions as
Siculus were sixty miles, the "three-days'
prophet Jonah, was so completely buried
twenty centuries, that for hundreds of ye
whether it had ever existed, until Layard
exhumed it and brought to light the remains
buried palaces. One of those palaces, that of S
its day an immense structure, erected upon a
now called Kouyunjik, wherein its ruins lie
Jones estimates this mound to contain fou
million tons of earth, and that its constructi
ten thousand men for twelve years. Sennach
Nineveh for his "royal city," and in the build

tures whose inscriptions in cuneiform (wedge shaped) acters confirm the Biblical account as to its antiquity (see x. 8, 9) and show it to have been old before Cadmus carried lphabet to Greece, or Moses brought up his millions from t. The larger part of the sculptures in the British Museum much of the Louvre collection came from Nineveh. The proportions and strange inscriptions and figures of those le slabs are now the astonishment of the learned world. great city's overthrow came suddenly in the year 625 B. C., a three years' siege, and came primarily by a great rise e waters of the Tigris breaking down twenty furlongs of vall that was one hundred feet high and broad enough for chariots to drive abreast upon it, and was defended, ac- ng to Diodorus, by one thousand five hundred towers, each undred feet high. This breaking of the wall occurred dur- drunken revelry of its soldiers, nobles, and king, whereby Medes were enabled to capture and burn the city, the king his family and treasurer perishing by a fire he himself set s palace on hearing the news of the city's capture by the es, the event being an exact and minute fulfillment of the het Nahum's prediction concerning it, uttered eighty years re its overthrow. From its ruins have been gathered many uctions of Assyrian art and manufacture that show an nce in the mode of living, of construction of furniture, of ration, of domestic furnishing, and of buildings in common that indicate an approach very nearly to our modern dards of civilized life.

he architecture of the Greeks, while modern in contrast that of the Egyptians or Chaldeans, and by no means to mpared with theirs in magnitude or solemn grandeur, had auty and symmetry peculiarly its own which has caused it taken as a model by succeeding nations. The explora- s at Ephesus in Asia Minor, carried on by the English archi- Mr. *John T. Wood,* under the direction of his government

(1863 to 1874), resulted among other important discoveries in finding the remains of the famous Temple of Diana twenty-two feet below the present surface, the excavations showing that two other and older temples had successively occupied the same site. The temple was one of the finest examples of Grecian architecture of the Ionic order, and is said to have been built at the common expense of the Greek Asiatic states, the chief architect being Chersiphron. Its ground plan was four hundred and twenty-five feet in length, and four hundred and twenty feet in breadth, or four times the dimension of the celebrated Parthenon at Athens. It was supported by one hundred and twenty-seven columns of Parian marble, each sixty feet in height, and of one hundred and fifty tons weight, these columns being, according to the chroniclers, given by as many kings. It was decorated with sculptures by Praxiteles, and had a masterpiece of Apelles. Its statue of the goddess Diana was one of the finest works of art the Greeks ever made, being wrought of ivory and gold at immense cost. The temple was one of the "Seven Wonders" of the world, and was seven times restored and enlarged at the cost of the Asiatic states. The night Alexander the Great was born, the slave Herostratus, to immortalize himself, set fire to the magnificent structure and it was burned to the ground. When Alexander became king he offered to rebuild it on condition that his name be given to it; this the Ephesians refused and themselves rebuilt it, a work which was not completed, according to Pliny, for two hundred and twenty years. Under the Cæsars it and the city were greatly beautified and rebuilt. When the Goths, at their naval invasion, 262 B. C., captured and sacked the city, they again burned the temple and it was not rebuilt.

The Parthenon at Athens is considered to have been the perfection of Greek architecture. It was of the Doric order of architecture, and was a small building, as compared to the others named, being but two hundred and twenty-eight feet long, by

ne hundred and one feet wide. Its material was of the finest white marble. Pericles built it 440 B. C.; the architects being ctinus and Callicrates, and the decorator that matchless culptor, Phidias, who adorned it with a wealth of art unqualed by anything ever known before or since. A frieze of our hundred feet around the cella was covered with bas-reliefs, resenting the great procession of the *Panathenæa*, a living anorama. The metopes were fitted with ninety-two sculptures epresenting the combats of the Centaurs. But to describe it vould require a volume. It was the only temple in Greece aving eight columns in the end porticoes. In its architectural eauty, and in harmony of columns and color, it had no equal.

While the Greeks never were great builders, they were naster architects; contrariwise the Romans were very ordinary, ften poor, architects, but they were great builders, piling up nountains of stone as though they would equal the Egyptians. Iost of their great works are now in ruins. The great palace f the Cæsars is but a great desolation. Of the stupendous baths f Titus, Diocletian, and Caracalla naught remains save huge eaps of rubbish. The traveler as well as the antiquary earches uncertainly for the mighty Forum of the historians. The splendid basilicas of Trajan and of Maxentine are a desolaion. The Coliseum is in ruins. The Pantheon alone of the ld empire buildings still retains its walls and roof and portico. t was erected by M. Agrippa, 25 B. C., and dedicated to Jupiter nd the other gods, and is now called the Church of the Maryrs. The building is of two parts, a portico nearly one hundred eet in length, supported by columns, and a round edifice one undred and thirty-two feet in diameter, with a circular wall ineteen feet thick. The dome was one hundred and thirtywo feet high, and had an opening in the center twenty-six eet in diameter. The roof of the portico was supported by quare beams made of brass plates riveted together. The *loors were also of brass.*

With the downfall of the Roman empire men lost to a great extent the passion for building huge monumental masses of brick and stone. The Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople (532–563) is perhaps the one architectural glory, until the period of that uprising of humanity, the Crusades, brought in what is known as the Gothic style of architecture, when many beautiful buildings were erected in Europe, more especially in France and England, of which we may not now speak. Then came the Renaissance period of architecture, out of which grew that huge architectural blunder, St. Peter's church at Rome, one of the most costly buildings of modern times, since which period men have changed and are no longer consumed with zeal to put the wealth of a kingdom into a huge pile of stone to propitiate the fancied gods, or to seek thereby better to please the real one. Yet we are not on the road to barbarism. Men are happily not now obliged to build palaces for rulers, and hovels for themselves; nor are their minds subject, as in the old days, to the ghostly superstition that God delights especially to dwell in a temple made by human hands. More and far better buildings are erected now than ever in the world's history, especially in civilized lands, but they are being made for man's welfare, comfort, and convenience, rather than to gratify a king's or a priest's pride. For three centuries now in civilized lands—and they are the first three centuries since the Great Pyramid was built—men have not been compelled by king or spiritual potentate to give of their bodies' sweat to erect a monument or a fane, either for the king or for the king's god.

[E POWER OF COMBINATION.

SULTS OF ASSOCIATED WORK OF MODERN TIMES.

ᵖROM the earliest pages of history, association and combination of effort has been the one great factor in uplift-
ᵖ ing and developing the human race.

ɔ previous age compares with the present in associated
; along the lines of philanthropy and the work of charity,
h is everywhere apparent throughout the civilized world.

ıis is also true in all moral and religious movements. Good
have been prompted to organize great missionary societies,
h distribute millions of dollars annually in the noble work
rrying the lamp of civilization—the Word of God—to the
corners of the earth.

stitutions of learning have been organized and endowed
ıe benefit of the masses.

ɔspitals and a multitude of eleemosynary institutions of
us kinds combine to help the unfortunate, relieve the
and supply the wants of the poor and needy.

ɔr must we overlook the combined efforts of great life, fire,
.ccident insurance companies, which, on a gigantic scale,
rse millions to the relief of those dependent, who other-
would be plunged into poverty and want, — and poverty
ɤant too generally lead to degradation and crime.

trade, commerce, agriculture, manufacture, and the me-
cal arts, the tendencies are to combine. Upon the western
ɜs *the steam plow* and harvesters have displaced the hand

plow and sickle. The cotton and woolen factories have wholly displaced the hand loom. The large mercantile establishments have absorbed the trade which formerly was carried on by a multitude of small stores and shops. Railroad companies control public travel.

Thus, in all the avenues of life's activities, combined efforts have displaced individuality, which was some years ago a distinguishing mark of personal enterprise.

In this chapter we shall trace briefly the origin and rise of the great associated movements of modern times.

In the early ages of the race, organization was limited, and the principle of association was slow to assert itself. Among nomadic tribes and shepherd people fewer necessities for organized effort presented themselves. In process of time political or governmental unions were effected. Families grew into tribes, then into petty kingdoms, and in turn there arose small monarchies, then larger ones, and finally the great monarchies of the world were established. (See chapter on "Civil Governments: Their Development and Function.") Previous to the Christian era various societies had been founded, partly political and to some extent ethical. Among the earlier and more important of these was the society of the Pythagoreans, founded by the great philosopher, Pythagoras, more than five hundred years before Christ. For two centuries and over this society flourished, taught wisdom, showed the way to a higher and purer life, and, in fact, wrought a great change in the manners of society.

Until the diffusion of a knowledge of the principles of the Christian religion among the nations of Europe had awakened a new life, given a new meaning to life, and opened up to the world a new governing motive as embodied in the Golden Rule, there appears only here and there relatively feeble attempts to promote great purposes by the united action of the many.

Combined action sinks the individual and elevates doing for others. This is the fundamental principle of the teaching of

Jesus. When, nearly thirty years ago, Anson Burlingame and his Chinese embassy were received in Boston, a distinguished scholar in his address to these Chinamen quoted from their great philosopher, Confucius, his celebrated rule of life: —

"One said to the master, 'What is the greatest word of all?'

"And the master replied, 'Is it not reciprocity? for what you do not wish to have done to you, you should not do to others.'

How infinitely this falls short of the clear ring of the Christ's Golden Rule! The one affirms that we should not do evil to another, and fortifies the position with an appeal to self-love by calling attention to the obvious principle that we do not wish evil done to ourselves. The language of the other is positive, emphatic, and all-pervasive. "All things, therefore, whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, even so do ye also unto them." Surely the Christ might well add to these words: "For this is the law and the prophets." Indeed, it is the keynote for all associated efforts of mankind, and hence it is that since the Christian era, and especially since the great Reformation, all sorts of associations have sprung up with the general purpose expressed or implied of improving society and doing good to other men.

Among the earlier and more general efforts in this direction was the grand movement for establishing hospitals for the care of the sick. Traces of infirmaries are found at earlier dates, and in general prior to the Reformation these efforts to relieve suffering and to provide for the unfortunate were confined to monasteries. Every monastery had its infirmary. These often not only treated the sick, but cared also for the aged, the blind, and the weak. Before the end of the eleventh century two hospitals were built in England by the Archbishop of Canterbury. After the Reformation for a long time the "Five Royal Hospitals" were noted. St. Bartholomew's was handed over to Lon-

don in 1547, escaped the great fire in 1666, and was rebuilt in 1729. St. Thomas was purchased by London in 1551. It was subsequently rebuilt, removed, and is now at Lambeth. Bethlehem was turned over to Henry VIII. in 1547, and the present building was constructed in 1810. Bridewell and Christ's hospitals have not been used for the sick for a long period.

England early became noted for attention to the sick and unfortunate, by establishing and maintaining hospitals. There was a great movement pervading almost the whole of the last century, by which, in England alone, something like forty hospitals were established, and, in large measure, endowed or their maintenance provided for. In our own country, during the colonial period, few hospitals were founded, but since the beginning of our national existence, and especially within the present half century, hospitals, in large numbers, with magnificent endowments and the finest appointments, have been established in every part and parcel of our land. Every large city has them, and in many country towns may be found sanitariums of various kinds.

Moreover, within the present century, and especially in our own country, great attention has been bestowed upon what may be called the defective classes, and we have now homes and schools for the deaf, the blind, the feeble-minded, and, in addition to these, homes and schools for orphans and other poor children. Indeed, the United States are conspicuous in this respect. Among the best endowed of this class of institutions may be mentioned Girard College in Philadelphia, and the McDonogh School at Baltimore. The former is well known. It is a magnificent charity. Nearly a thousand orphan boys here find a good home and proper instruction, both in books and in manual training. But this institution is located within the limits of a great city. The McDonogh School, on the other hand, is situated in God's country. John McDonogh deserves to be ranked as one of America's noblest philan-

thropists. Born in Baltimore in the midst of the war of the Revolution, in which his father served as a soldier, he was always a patriotic American citizen. Removing to New Orleans before he had attained his majority, he became there a successful merchant. Taking part in the defense of that city, under the command of Andrew Jackson, he became strongly attached to its people, and strove with all his might to improve its condition. A practical slaveholder, he was yet a stanch abolitionist. He educated his own slaves, and sent them, shipload after shipload, to Africa at his own expense. At his death, in 1850, he gave, from his vast fortune, liberally to the educational funds of the city, where, for a full half century, he had passed his life, and remembered the city of his birth by founding, just outside of its limits, the school which, through all coming time, is to perpetuate his name.

McDonogh Institute is situated on the line of the Western Maryland Railroad, just outside of Baltimore, and occupies a commanding ridge of great beauty. The grounds comprise eight hundred acres of rich land, including three hundred acres of primitive forest. The buildings are substantial, modern, and well adapted to their use. Here are, at the present time, from the city of Baltimore, nearly two hundred poor boys, between ten and sixteen years of age, housed, fed, clothed, instructed, and cared for in every way with Christian kindness, and patient attention. They are instructed in books, in the use of tools, and in practical and scientific farming.

The trend of the present age in all Christian countries, especially in America and in Great Britain, is clearly towards reorganizing on broader Christian lines the social side of our civilized life. Altruism displaces the natural selfishness of humanity. The Golden Rule of our Saviour is receiving a wider and deeper interpretation. People are learning to look less upon their own things and more upon the things of others.

Even in the earlier ages of the world there are traces of asso-

ciations for mutual good. In Jewish history as early as the time of Solomon evidences are found of associations resembling more or less the present organization known as the Brotherhood of Freemasons.

Some have endeavored to trace this order back as far as the old Roman empire, and even to the Pharaohs in Egypt. Modern Masonry, or, as it is sometimes called, "Speculative Freemasonry," was found in England nearly two and a half centuries ago. The first grand lodge, that of London, was not instituted till 1717, and it had power to grant charters to other lodges. It is stated that Charles II. and William III. were Masons, and the famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren, held the office of grand master. About a century and a half ago Masonry was introduced into France, Germany, and Russia in Europe, and into America and India.

At the present time grand lodges exist in England, France, Belgium, Netherlands, Prussia, Saxony, Hamburg, Switzerland, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and perhaps elsewhere in Europe; in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Canada, the United States, British Columbia, Central and South America, and lodges may be found in India, Africa, China, Polynesia, Palestine, Turkey, Australia, New Zealand, and the West Indies. There are about forty grand lodges in the United States. The order has been prohibited by the pope in Spain, Austria, Poland, and Russia. Grand lodges are now found in every one of the United States and most of the territories. The total number of members of this order in our country is about seven hundred thousand.

The institution may be regarded as purely fraternal. Its fundamental principles have been expressed in this way: "The fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man." Masonry holds to a belief in God, and the acceptance of a Book of the Law. To the Christian this "Book of the Law" is the Bible, to the Hebrew it is the Old Testament. The tenets of Masonry

re "brotherly love, relief, and truth," and its cardinal virtues re "temperance, fortitude, prudence, and justice."

The Independent Order of Odd Fellows is one of the largest rganizations among the fraternal societies of to-day. It is a ecret, benevolent, benefit association. It originated in London bout one hundred and fifty years ago.

The objects of the order are "to visit the sick, relieve the istressed, bury the dead, and educate the orphan." Its motto s "Friendship, love, and truth." It has a grand lodge in very state and territory in the United States, and the provinces f Canada, and in Germany, Denmark, Switzerland, and Australia. Lodges have been organized also in France, Holland, weden, Cuba, Chili, Mexico, Japan, and the Sandwich Islands. t publishes about fifty periodicals. It claims to-day more than ight hundred thousand members in the United States alone.

In addition to these, the most prominent secret orders, many thers of differing types exist here and elsewhere.

The Sons of Temperance, Good Templars, and Temples of Honor are among the prominent secret societies of this kind n this country. Besides these orders there are many large ssociations for carrying on the temperance work in different ountries. Among them may be mentioned "The National Temperance Society," "The National Temperance League," "The Scottish Temperance League," "The National Band of Hope Union," all of Great Britain, and in our country "The National Temperance Society," various total abstinence societies, and especially should be remembered the grand organization among the women called "The Woman's Christian Temperance Union," which has now expanded into "The Women's World's Christian Temperance Union." This society s sometimes called "The White Ribbon Society," because its nembers wear as a badge a small bit of white ribbon. It is a powerful organization, and in the United States especially its nfluence at the present time is very great in molding public

thought and in promoting more vigorous action in regard to the use of alcoholic drinks as a beverage, and of other narcotics. Prominent in this good work is the department of Scientific Temperance Teaching in the public schools. This great movement is due almost exclusively to the earnest efforts of Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, who, for a series of years, has been the superintendent of this department of the W. C. T. U. work. Mrs. Hunt, with the co-operation of good men and women in the various states, has secured in forty states, and, by congressional action, in the District of Columbia, laws making the teaching of scientific physiology and hygiene, especially with reference to the physical, mental, and moral effects of the use of narcotics upon the human system, compulsory in all public schools. While, of course, as yet, all is not done that is desirable, still a great stimulus has been added to the good work of instructing the young in the deleterious effects of alcoholic stimulants.

The Red Cross Societies are the outgrowth of the Geneva Convention of 1864. They are formed for relieving the wounded in time of war. They derive their name from the fact that a red cross on a white ground was adopted as a badge to be worn by all persons and to mark all places neutralized by international agreement for the carrying out of the humane objects of the society. An international organization was completed at Berlin in April, 1869. All the powers of Europe, Persia (in Asia), and the United States of America have signed the agreements formulated by the Geneva Convention. In brief, these agreements are that in time of war all ambulances and military hospitals, and all persons caring for the sick and wounded, shall be deemed *neutral*, and protected as such. The "American Association of the Red Cross" was formed in 1881, and Miss Clara Barton was elected president. She still holds that office.

The Grand Army of the Republic is a great organization limited to the Union soldiers and sailors in the civil war of 1861-5. The preliminary meeting, at which the society was planned,

'as held at Decatur, Ill., April 6, 1866. A constitution was rati-
ed at the first regular convention, at Indianapolis, Nov. 20, of
ıe same year, forty posts being represented. Its objects were
:ated to be to unite in a brotherhood all soldiers and sailors
'ho fought for the Union, to care for their widows and orphans,
nd to foster a spirit of patriotism and devotion to the Union.

At the convention in Philadelphia in January, 1868, it was
›solved to set apart the 30th of May in each year as a day for
ıe decoration of the graves of Union soldiers and sailors who
›ll in the civil war. This was the origin of Decoration Day, or
:emorial Day. The society is open to all soldiers, privates as
'ell as officers, honorably discharged after service in the civil
'ar. It is non-partisan and non-political. Its motto is "Fra-
›rnity, charity, loyalty." Its membership is now nearly four
undred thousand. The organization will diminish in numbers
ɜ its members die, and when the last have died will cease to exist.

An allied association, called "The Sons of Veterans," is com-
osed of the sons of Union soldiers and sailors, and another, "The
'oman's Relief Corps," of the wives of the soldiers.

The Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor was
:arted in a Congregational church in Portland, Maine, Feb. 2,
381. It is intended to be undenominational, though confined
ırgely to the Congregational and Presbyterian churches. The
›ciety has had a wonderful growth. The annual convention
t Boston, 1895, numbered 56,000 delegates, representing some
ıirty denominations, the largest religious gathering on record.

The Baptist Young People's Union was organized in 1889,
nd its membership has increased very rapidly. The young
eople of the Baptist churches throughout this land and foreign
›untries are rapidly organizing themselves into Young Peo-
le's Unions for more aggressive Christian service.

The Epworth League of the Methodist denomination is
nother great organization of young people, organized in 1889,
nd had a membership Jan. 1, 1896, of 1,250,000.

The combined work of all these young people's organizations has awakened a religious interest among the young people, not only of our own land, but throughout the Christian world, such as no similar movement of the past has ever aroused.

Another society which is widely known is called "The King's Daughters." This is an unsectarian organization of Christian workers. It was founded Jan. 13, 1886, in New York city. Its object is to "promote spiritual sympathy and unselfish labor." Its motto is :—

"Look up and not down,
Look forward and not back,
Look out and not in,
Lend a hand."

Its badge is a royal purple ribbon, which may be worn with or without (usually with) the Maltese cross. The cross bears the emblem "In His Name." A local branch is called a circle. Circles are found in the various states, in Canada, Europe, and Australia. Its authorized organ is the *Silver Cross*, published in New York. It now numbers over twenty thousand members.

One of the notable ways in which men have associated is in the formation of insurance companies. These comprise life, fire, marine, and accident associations. The necessities of modern modes of life and business have made these associations almost universal. A very large proportion of the combustible property of the civilized world is now insured against loss by fire, and a large percentage of the lives of men are insured in one or more of the great variety of life insurance companies now doing business in the various civilized countries of our globe.

But the time would fail to tell of all the great religious organizations of this century, such as the Bible and Tract societies, and various other denominational or undenominational publishing societies, missionary societies, for both home and foreign work, Sunday-school organizations, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, societies for the uplift-

ng of sailors, orphans, the aged, the chronic infirm, the outcast, he fallen, and, in short, for the relief of all classes of human beings needing aid of any kind, physical, mental, and moral. Indeed, our age may well be called the age of organized charities,—more than that, the age of organized efforts of every kind.

Indeed, the true idea of all governments is simply associations of men for their mutual protection and general welfare. The tendency of this age is clearly towards the consolidation of a few great empire states. The British Empire covers more han eight and a half million square miles of territory; the Russian Empire embraces over eight millions; the Chinese Empire over four millions, and the United States three million six hundred thousand. Thus it will be seen that these four great powers embrace nearly twenty-five million square miles, or almost one half of the entire land surface of the globe. The population of these four leading powers aggregates fully nine hundred million, or more than half the entire human family.

The unit of the human race is undoubtedly the individual man, but man is a gregarious animal, and it is largely by the united rather than by the individual efforts of the race that civilization advances and the race is elevated. The foregoing discussion of the associated side of humanity is fruitful in suggestions. For many ages the race struggled for food, clothing, and shelter. But long since it arrived at that point where improvement, advancement, uplift,—in a word, civilization,—became the watchword. Then men began to associate themselves together more closely and more generally. The result is the complicated system of modern society which we see to-day. Mutual interdependence is a truth now everywhere recognized. "No man liveth to himself alone." What drawbacks, what checks, what hindrances, the race may yet experience no one can foresee, but there are strong indications that we are approaching the time when the fatherhood of God and the universal brotherhood of man will inevitably be recognized.

WOMEN ASSOCIATED.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF ORGANIZED COÖPERATION.

"ORGANIZATION is the tendency of the present age." This saying has been repeated many times in the last decade as organizations have been springing into existence all over the world. Notwithstanding that it has become a hackneyed statement, it nevertheless clothes a vital truth.

Woman has discovered that in organized effort there is economy of money, of time, and of physical strength, as well as of what is far more valuable, of sympathy, spiritual force, and a sense of the "relations that exist between one set of people and another set of people, between one idea and another idea." She has found when she adds herself to another, in the recognition of a common interest, of a common motive, of a common ideal, that the two can accomplish twice the task with one half the effort.

The women leaders throughout the world who have been interested in promoting the formation of state, national, and international councils, associations, unions, leagues, and societies, have recognized this fact, and have reasoned that if individuals gain in strength and results by a united effort, equally so will associations that unite themselves for large purposes accomplish infinitely more than one by itself. "Organization has come to be the Archimedes screw that moves the world."

Organization has been a means for the promotion of literary

The Library
THE AMERICAN MUSIC SYSTEM
In The Office
The Physician
The Teacher
The Nurse
Woman In The Home
PHASES OF WOMAN'S WORK

ulture. Books and schools so necessary to this are the result of rganized endeavor; these, and a large number of associations re working directly towards woman's literary improvement. 'here are the schools and colleges for girls, the University Extension, Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, the Assoiation for the Advancement of Women, and the woman's terary clubs everywhere, in every city, town, and village. While this latter movement, comparatively speaking, is new, et it is of marvelous growth, and is a grand agency for the ocial, ethical, and literary culture of women in middle life. 'he Federation of Women's Clubs was formed in 1890, with fty-one corporate bodies. This was the first movement to nify the work of intellectual and social organizations over the and. Now it has in its membership four hundred and fifty clubs n the United States and in foreign lands, having a combined nembership of eighty thousand women. This phenomenal rowth indicates the need for such an opportunity of contact and unity.

Each club pursues its own preferred line of study and work, ome giving prominence to culture in one direction, and some n another, but all are in eager pursuit of knowledge, improvenent, and larger usefulness. The Federation includes in its nembership a large proportion of the distinguished women of the land, and the literary club has come to be the source from which to seek cultured workers for the carrying forward of any great undertaking. For the truth of this statement we need nly to glance at the list of the names of the officers and the general committee who had in charge and carried to a successul issue the World's Congress of Representative Women: Mrs. Potter Palmer, president, Mrs. Charles Henrotin, vicepresident, Mrs. May Wright Sewall, Mrs. Rachel Foster Avery, Miss Frances E. Willard, Dr. Sarah Hackett Stevenson, Dr. Julia Holmes Smith, Mrs. John Coonley, Mrs. Elizabeth Boynton Harbert, and Mrs. William Thayer Brown. Every one of these

belongs to some federated club. Culture is the watchword, yet this is sought only as a means of greater usefulness in the ever-spreading activities of woman's life—in her own home and beyond; only to hasten the day

> "When the war-drums throb no longer,
> And the battle-flags are furled,
> In the parliament of man,
> The federation of the world."

In the numerous clubs belonging to the Federation the course of study is varied—different clubs taking up such a line of research as to each seems most desirable, and discussing it by means of original papers, lectures, and conversation. A glance at the work of the women's clubs of any state shows that literature, art, education, history, science, domestic problems, music, business, social questions, philosophy, have all been chosen by some club and discussed to the edification of its members at least. Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin of Chicago, who is president of the General Federation, said at the meeting of the Iowa Federation, that "the Illinois organization was interested in literature, education, and civics; New York in education, literature, and philanthropy; Massachusetts in philanthropy; Ohio in public libraries; while in Maine the farmers' wives are becoming more and more interested in their clubs."

Mrs. Virginia J. Berryhill, president of the Iowa Federation said: "I know full well that women's clubs will not be able to make over this 'wise old world.' The lines of selfhood and self-sacrifice are narrowly drawn. There is the law of self-development—each one having upon his brow the seal of honor to be the best, to do the best, to live for the best, by every obligation for the privilege of existence. The individual first knows himself, his life, and his effort, but the conscious relation to the family, the clan, the tribe, is the higher problem to be solved. Women have known the individual problem, have been faithful

to the family relationship, its obligation of duty, courage, devotion, and development."

Woman has shown her power in the realm of sovereignty. Witness Semiramis, whose heroism commanded a king's devotion, and whose armies went forth to do battle and to win renown; Cleopatra who swayed the destiny of nations; Elizabeth, daughter of a monarch who knew no law but that of self and his supreme command, dictating her subjects' coming and going; Victoria, throughout her long and well ordered reign,—all these have well exemplified her power in sovereignty.

But for woman to identify herself in her relation to the whole as an important factor in the fabric of society; to find her position, to adjust herself to the mass, and to move in it to the effective accomplishment of making the world better, this is left for the nineteenth century to exemplify. In this adjustment the social and literary club life has aided. Here many women have come first to feel that sense of relationship to the outer world; and from here they may go on to other work as fitness and demand impel.

Every woman who forms a part of this great society, believes that a broader, more completely developed womanhood means better homes and more efficient mothers. Efficient mothers will have nobler sons and daughters; nobler sons and daughters mean nobler manhood and womanhood, the influence of whose lives will preserve and prosper the life of this nation, until it shall become the grandest, most Christian land of the world. As one has said, "The work is great, the opportunities manifold; the laborers willing, the field limitless."

An organization which had its origin nearly twenty-five years ago, and whose annual meeting has the dignified title of the Woman's Congress, is the Association for the Advancement of Women. A few women belonging to the New York Sorosis formed the plan, and gave the society the name. Though its originators have not seen their ideal reached, yet

there is a gratification in the knowledge that the association has been a source of inspiration in many cities. That society, so well and favorably known for its great good accomplished—the "Woman's Educational and Industrial Union"—is one of the outgrowths of its work. Professor Maria Mitchell, Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe have been its honored presidents.

The organization has called together women of great minds, of noble thoughts and deeds, who have spoken from the platform in the various cities where their gathering has been, and it has always left an inspiration to larger, broader life and thought.

It has helped women whose sphere is the home to understand that that delightful spot can only be kept so by them; and to realize also that the living interests outside as well as inside must be understood; that there are other needs than those of their own households, and that in helping them they receive assistance in turn.

"It has given support and encouragement to professional women and working women, by teaching the duty of honest labor, the respectability of the laborer, and the right of every woman to work as necessity or taste directs."

New York, Chicago, Syracuse, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Providence, Boston, Denver, Buffalo, and various other cities have been the seat of the Woman's Congress. There is never a large membership. That is not the object desired, but rather to stir, to set others off on new lines of thought and action at home.

Taking the meeting held at Grand Rapids, Michigan, as a fair sample, these are some of the names that appear on the programmes for the afternoon and evening sessions: Mrs. Julia Ward Howe was the presiding officer and presented a paper, the subject being "Aliens in America"; her daughter, Mrs. Maud Howe Elliott, spoke on "Some American Artists"; Mrs. Charlotte Emerson Brown, of New Jersey, on "The Conditions

of Success for Women"; Mrs. Clara Bewick Colby spoke convincingly on "The Present Status of Wyoming as Affected by Woman Suffrage"; Miss Catharine Weed Barnes gave a paper on "Photography for Women." Other names, such as Octavia W. Bates, Mrs. Ellen Batelle Dietrick, Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell, and Mrs. Henrietta L. T. Wolcott, show well the character of and the influence that must go out from such a gathering.

The woman's press clubs that have their existence in the larger cities of our country deserve mention among the many achievements of women. As might be expected, these are composed of women who have been able to stand their ground in the battle of modern journalism. They are a merry, happy, witty company of women, not all members of the metropolitan press, but all have attained some prominence either in literature or some field akin to it, which entitles them to membership.

The Women's Press Club of New York is a representative one and has grown until it has a place among the leading clubs of the city. This was organized in November, 1889, finding its origin in the mind of Mrs. Croly (Jennie June), its president, under whose management it has reached its present attainment. Its membership numbers well towards two hundred, and its home is found on East Twenty-third street. This home, beginning in a very modest way has grown to be very delightful and inviting, a veritable place for rest and refreshment. It is always open for the use of the members, but the regular meetings are held twice a month; one for business, the other for social and literary purposes.

Who are some of its members? Jennie June; Mrs. E. A. Connor, who is connected with the American Press Association; Mrs. Eleanor Kirk Ames, publisher of *Eleanor Kirk's Ideas;* Miss E. G. Gordon of the *New York World;* Mrs. Kate Bostwick of the *Brooklyn Eagle:* Miss Mary F. Seymour, editor of the *Business Woman's Journal;* Mrs. Frank Leslie Wilde; Mrs. Sara

J. Lippincott (Grace Greenwood); Mrs. Eliza J. Nicholson of the *New Orleans Picayune*, and many others as well known in the publishing world.

That organized effort among women has been conducive to the advancement of philanthropic work and religion, has been considered quite largely in another part of this work. Individual effort, noble as it is, cannot succeed like the combined efforts of the many; and sufficient proof was given of this in the resumé given of the rise and growth of the Deaconess order. Similar to this and of long years of existence are some of the asociations of women in the Catholic Church. First and oldest is the order of Sisters of Charity. This was founded in 1630. Implicit and prompt obedience to the superior, as to the voice of God, is the magic power which controls these vast organizations of women. But little idea can be formed, by those outside, of the heroism of these sisters who give their whole life to this service. One of the chief works of this sisterhood is the care of the sick in the hospitals. More than thirty of such organizations are formed among the Catholic women. These care for sick in their homes, have charge of foundling asylums, train children in their industrial schools, care for the aged poor, and orphans.

In other churches the women, banded together for the promotion of home and foreign missionary work, have done an immense amount of good. Take the Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, for example. This society had its organization at Boston, in Tremont Street Church, on March 23, 1869. Mrs. William Butler, who with her devoted husband has done such wonderful work as a missionary to India and Mexico, was the inspiration of the movement. It was a cold, stormy day, and but seven women beside the leader mentioned above were present. These were Mrs. E. W. Parker, Mrs. Lewis Flanders, Mrs. Thomas A. Rich, Mrs. Thomas Kingsbury, Mrs. O. T. Taylor, Mrs. William B. Merrell,

Mrs. H. J. Stoddard. From this beginning, twenty-six years ago, with eight zealous women, who, from the enthusiasm aroused and the gain in membership, gave that first year $4,546.86, there has grown an organization that reaches from ocean to ocean. Then there was one auxiliary, now there are six thousand two hundred and twenty-three; then there were eight members, now there are one hundred and fifty-three thousand five hundred eighty-four. For the year ending October 1, 1894, the contributions reached the sum of $311,925.96, and during the years of its existence the organization has collected and disbursed $3,451,683.27. The society has one hundred and forty-two missionaries in the foreign field, twelve medical missionaries; it supports three hundred and eighty-eight day schools, forty-nine boarding schools, eleven orphanages, ten training schools, and thirteen hospitals and dispensaries. In the schools, last year, thirteen thousand girls were under instruction, while the hospitals and dispensaries cared for fifty-seven thousand two hundred and twenty patients.

What is said of this society, can be as truthfully said of those of other denominations; for the women in all religious work are doing great things for the women in foreign lands.

The order of King's Daughters was formed in New York in 1886. Mrs. Margaret Bottome is president, and has been since its inception. During the few years of its existence, it has attained a marvelous magnitude, and is now an incorporated order. This is due largely to its non-sectarian foundation. Its members are pledged to assist the needy and suffering everywhere, and to help in all good works. The badge of the society is a maltese cross of silver, with the initials "I. H. N." engraved upon it. The effect of this society has been most wholesome and stimulating, not only to those receiving assistance, but to the lives of the individuals engaged heartily in the work; in the soul, understanding that why they do it is because

it is done "In His Name." Missionaries in foreign lands as well as in the home country have fostered the growth and idea of the order; the Woman's Christian Temperance Union has also introduced it wherever it has gained a foothold, and circles of King's Daughters have thus sprung up throughout the world. Mrs. Bottome says: "I am so glad of all the poetical that is associated with our order—our names, our watchword, our beautiful Psalm, the forty-fifth, so full of Oriental imagery. I love to say our order came out of the forty-fifth Psalm, and as I read of the exquisitely beautiful dress of the King's Daughter, it seems so natural to think of the spiritual dress of wrought gold and raiment of needlework."

The Woman's Relief Corps is another national organization of strong and healthful growth. With the close of the war and the return of the veterans to peaceful pursuits of domestic life, there arose all over the country fraternal organizations designed to perpetuate the ties formed during the four momentous years just passed. At first the importance of the charitable work that must surely follow was not fully realized. But with the earliest organizations of veterans this became manifest, and from 1869 onward the loyal women of America, through the formation of the Woman's Relief Corps, have done much to aid the Grand Army of the Republic in helping the indigent living or in perpetuating the memory of the heroic dead. Kate Brownlee Sherwood says: "We claim to be the direct heirs of the first national association of women in the United States, organized in 1861, under the auspices of the Ladies' Aid Society, to render aid and comfort to the Union soldiers engaged in putting down the rebellion—a society which taught American women the power of organization. Lincoln's call for volunteers, April 15, 1861, enlisted the women with the men." The work of the Soldiers' Aid Societies found expression through the Sanitary Commission. What enterprises they undertook! What a large measure of success was theirs!

Abraham Lincoln said: "I am not accustomed to the language of eulogy, I have never studied the art of paying compliments to women, but I must say that if all that has been said by orators and poets since the creation of the world in praise of women were applied to the women of America, it would not do them justice for their conduct in this war."

The first Relief Corps was organized at Portland, Maine. Like societies were instituted elsewhere in New England, and in 1871 Massachusetts organized a state department, other New England states following. As posts of the Grand Army felt the need of woman's work, societies to aid them were formed in Ohio and other Western states.

The National Association was formed at Denver, in July, 1883, where representatives of the various women's organizations, east and west, had met in connection with the Seventeenth National Encampment. Fifty-six women became charter members. In June, 1894, there was a reported membership of one hundred and ten thousand, who had by their organized effort raised in the years of their existence a cash aggregate of nearly one million dollars.

The Woman's Relief Corps has assisted largely, through petition and direct influence, in securing just pension laws for the relief of the Union soldiers, their widows and orphans; they secured the passage of the bill for the relief of army nurses, after years of unflagging work. They have built and are carrying on the National Relief Corps Home at Geneva, Ohio, for soldiers' widows and mothers, army nurses, and dependent soldiers and their wives. The Memorial Home in Pennsylvania, the Evergreen Home in California, and the Woman's Annex to the Soldiers' Home in Michigan are also of their building and their care. They also contribute largely to the support of soldiers' homes and soldiers' orphans' homes in many of the states, furnishing hospital comforts, books, and pictures. Systematic, concerted movement in connection with

school authorities in the line of patriotic, educational work has been inaugurated by this body, which promises "to be a fixed propaganda for the dissemination of republican principles underlying our free government." When the immense influx of illiterate and ignorant foreigners and the rapid enrollment of their children in our public schools are thoughtfully considered, the momentous issues depending upon a movement like this are readily seen. At the National Council of Women in February, 1895, the committee on Patriotic Instruction, of which Kate Brownlee Sherwood was chairman, presented the following resolution which was introduced through the agency of the Woman's Relief Corps :—

"PATRIOTISM AND THE FLAG SALUTE.

"We believe that patriotic teaching in the schools, the introduction of the American flag into every schoolroom in the land, and its salute as the symbol and prophecy of peace, of progress, of universal liberty, and of equal rights under the Constitution, would unite the nation's children, strengthen love of law, and develop the spirit of patriotism, which is the life of the Republic.

"We commend the American patriotic salute, known as the original Balch salute, which pledges allegiance to the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man and to the flag of our country, as the triune grace of good citzenship."

Organized to aid the Grand Army of the Republic, they have gladly done whatever their hands found to do; weaving garlands and scattering flowers for those who sleep beneath the greensward, and watchful of the comfort of those who are left. The veterans of the war are rapidly falling. The majority are on the western slope of life, and are looking towards the setting sun. But the principles upon which the organization of the Woman's Relief Corps is built are so broad and far-reaching.

that the society will be perpetuated long after the last veteran of the Union has answered to the final roll call.

The Young Women's Christian Association was made necessary through the intercollegiate movement of the Young Men's Christian Association in co-educational institutions, which seemed to demand some independent form of work for Christian young women. As was natural, the movement began in local college associations, then as the need for greater strength was evident, in the years of 1884, '85, and '86, they were grouped in state organizations. This more than ever emphasized the need of a centralizing power, and a national convention was called at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, in August, 1886. Delegates from seven state organizations were present. These agreeing that the times were calling for the highest type of young womanhood, determined to band together all over the land with the one end in view—the development of the highest type of Christian womanhood. Thus the National, and afterward the International Young Women's Christian Association was formed on much the same plan as that of the Young Men's Christian Association.

The basis of all association work is the local organization. These are grouped into two divisions, the city and the college association. The work of the former progresses along five lines, —the physical, social, business, educational, and religious. The local and college associations are united to form the state organization; a union of these forming the National society. The World's Young Women's Christian Association is a union of five national organizations, whose headquarters are in Chicago. The work of the World's Association is intrusted to an executive committee of thirty-three women, nearly all of whom reside in Chicago.

This work has opened up a profession for educated, consecrated young women; for its growth upon a permanent basis *depends almost wholly* upon the efficiency of the secretarial

forces, in the local, state, and international fields. A more useful or desirable professional career has never been opened to Christian young women than may be found in this work.

The avowed aim of the association is the development of all sides of character in young women, which includes not simply a religious but a spiritual nature. Those who founded this organization understand this to mean a character which is in harmony with the life and teachings of Jesus Christ; hence their name of Christian Association.

Miss Nellie J. Allen, who is the first young woman to receive the appointment of state secretary, holds that position for the schools and colleges of the states of New Jersey and New York. She is a native of Rochester, and a graduate of Syracuse University; and it was with the Christian Association of that institution that Miss Allen's work gained prominence.

In answer to a question as to the origin of the Young Women's Christian Association, Miss Allen says: "It started in a prayer meeting held at Normal College in Illinois in 1872, among a band of homesick girls, who gathered together for mutual sympathy and felt the need of organization, which they there formed on the same basis as the Young Men's Christian Association." She thinks, too, that the place of its origin may account for the fact that its spread has been much more rapid among educational institutions. There are now in the United States two hundred and seventy-four college and fifty-eight city associations. New York state is the most symmetrically organized of any state in the Union, there being an equal number of college and city associations, ten each.

Miss Allen also says: "An ideal working order of things would be to have a college and city organization in the same town, for college and business women can each contribute influence which neither meets without association with the other."

This banding together of the strong, pure, true young wom-

en of the world in an endeavor to unite all young womanhood in simple but perfect obedience to Almighty God, means a union, the power of which is too great to be measured by finite mind, but which, ever growing and increasing, shall be felt throughout all eternity.

The mind of Mrs. Emily Talbot of Boston first evolved the definite working plan of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ. As the mother of two college-bred girls, and a woman to whom frequent appeal was made by college educated young women, eager to make good use of their acquirements, and yet not knowing how or where to begin, Mrs. Talbot pondered upon the situation, until the vision of great numbers of educated women of congenial tastes, who by co-operation and organization might advance educational methods, and, as Miss Marion Talbot says, "encourage girls in more definite aims, support the struggling student, formulate plans for original investigation, as well as to work together in a common interest, with method and harmony and a spirit of self-sacrifice."

Thought and action followed the vision. The word was spoken to the college women of Boston, and on November 8, 1881, seventeen women, representing eight different colleges, gathered at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, to consider the advisability of forming an association.

In response to a notice sent to all alumnæ of the eight colleges so associated, residing in New England and New York city, sixty-six women met in Boston on January 14, 1882, and adopted a constitution and elected officers, Mrs. Jennie Field Bashford being the first president. The first meeting after the organization was held on March 11, 1882.

Representatives from fifteen colleges now form its membership, which has increased to about two thousand. Some of these who had an occasional opportunity to attend the meetings of the association, and to take some part in its work, were so impressed with the inspiration coming from organized action, that they took measures toward the formation of

local branch associations. The first organization of this kind was the Washington branch, which was recognized on October 25th, 1884. Since that time there has been a rapid increase, and there are now sixteen branches carrying on effective work.

When we consider the different lines of work pursued by members of this association—the large number of clubs for graduate study; clubs dealing with such subjects as sanitary, political, and social science, domestic economy, pedagogics, language, classics, literature, poetry, fiction, and history; the establishment and maintenance of fellowships; the tabulation of statistics regarding the health of women college graduates before, during, and after college life; the establishment of a bureau of collegiate information, under the direction of Mrs. Kate Morris Cone, of Hartford, Vermont; an attempt to make a complete bibliography of the literature pertaining to the higher education of woman,—considering all these, and there are, beside, many others, it is evident that the influence of the association is very powerful, and is being effective in behalf of progress in collegiate education for women.

The national society of the Daughters of the American Revolution was organized in Washington, October 11, 1890. The object of this society is to tend the fires of patriotism as carefully as the vestal virgins of old tended the sacred flame: to kindle them in the hearts of the rising generation, and to fan the dying embers among children of an older growth. They propose to perpetuate the memory of the women of 1776, and to honor the names of the men who achieved American independence, by the acquisition and protection of historical spots, by the erection of monuments, and by the preservation of documents and relics. Along educational lines, their work will be to encourage the study of American history, and to endeavor to have it given its fair share of attention along with the histories of Rome and Greece, which are still considered so essential.

This society has its headquarters in Washington, but per-

ades the whole Union of states and territories. The state rganizations are designated as chapters, and forty-five states nd territories are thus organized, who elect their officers annully. Any woman is eligible to membership in the society of he Daughters of the American Revolution, who is eighteen ears of age, and who is descended from a patriot, man or roman, who aided in establishing American independence.

The seal of the society is a matron at the spinning wheel, ncircled by the words, "Daughters of the American Revolution," and the motto is, "Home and Country." The insignia is lso the wheel and distaff, in gold and blue enamel, the thirteen tars and the spokes of the wheel signifying the thirteen original states. The rosette is blue, with a white edge, imitating he colors of Washington's staff officers in the Revolution.

The annual meeting of the "Daughters," termed the Continental Congress, is held in the month of February, continuing our days, including the twenty-second day in its session. Its irst president-general was Mrs. Caroline Scott Harrison, to whose vonderful tact, honest courtesy, and prompt and wise decisions nuch of its success is due. Its second president-general was Mrs. Letitia Green Stevenson, wife of the vice-president of the United States. Her resignation at the session of 1895, was received with egret, and Mrs. Mary McFerson Foster, wife of ex-Secretary of State Foster, was elected third president-general.

A society called the Children of the Revolution has recently been formed in Boston under the direction of Mrs. D. Lothrop, better known under her *nom de plume*, Margaret Sidney. The society includes children over twelve years of age, eligible to nembership in the Sons and Daughters of the Revolution when hey are of age. The foundation of these societies is not mere sentiment, but most practical and educational; for it inspires every mother to teach her boy to lift his hat to his country's lag, and to demand the hoisting of that flag over every schoolhouse *in the land.*

Time and space would fail for a review of the other numerous organizations, which with those already mentioned and others of a similar nature, have come into existence since 1848, the date given by Susan B. Anthony as the starting point of all the agitation of the "woman question." But a chapter devoted to "Women Associated" would be incomplete without a reference to the National Council of Women. This organization sprang from the first International Council, and held its first triennial session in Indianapolis in 1891. The World's Congress of Representative Women, held in 1893, absorbed very largely the strength of the National Council, so that its second triennial session was not held until 1895. This meeting was at Washington, D. C., where for the two weeks beginning with February 17th and closing March 2d many of the cultured women of America discussed questions of religion, temperance, education, philanthropy, patriotism, industry, municipal work, moral and government reform. Mrs. May Wright Sewall was the presiding officer. The name of this lady became familiar during the days of the Columbian Exposition, as she was chairman of the committee of organization, having in charge the preparation for the World's Congress.

Twenty-two flourishing organizations were represented at that grand council of women. Missionary societies, temperance unions, industrial organizations, the National American Woman Suffrage Association, the National Council of Jewish Women, and the Woman's Republican Association of the United States, the Woman's Relief Corps, Wimodaughsis, and the International Kindergarten Union were among those which sent delegates to the meeting. The proceedings of the council were of importance and many of the newspapers of the country gave to them more space than they did to the proceedings of the United States congress on the same days. The prominent feature of the opening session was the triennial address by the president, Mrs. Sewall, which was in part as follows:—

"The first president of the National Council, opening its first triennial session, quoted the sentiment with which three years prior to that time Elizabeth Cady Stanton had opened the great meeting which at once celebrated a birthday anniversary and the birth of a new idea. No more fitting words can be found with which to open the second triennial session. Remember them with me: 'A difference of opinion on one question must not prevent us from working unitedly in those on which we agree.' There is a large-mindedness, a sweetness and serenity of spirit in these words which characterize the 'new woman' of whom we hear so much false flippancy.

"To work with those with whom one does not agree has been thought to be impossible to women, and indeed even during the era of organization the central motive of all organizations has been to bring together those who do agree. This very fact was the weakness and the danger of organization, as it was known prior to 1888.

"The fundamental principles of the constitution of our National Council are as well worth reading at successive triennial sessions as is the Declaration of Independence on every recurring Fourth of July. Listen:—

"'We, the women of the United States, sincerely believing that the best good of our homes and our nation will be advanced by our own greater unity of thought, sympathy, and purpose, and that an organized movement of women will best conserve the highest good of the family and the state, do hereby band ourselves together in a federation of workers committed to the overthrow of all forms of ignorance and injustice, and to the application of the "Golden Rule" to society, custom, and law.'

The motto for the council was suggested by the first treasurer of the council, M. Louise Thomas, and earnestly supported by the first president, Frances E. Willard, and was finally adopted by them. 'Lead, Kindly Light,' is a motto worthy of being considered in itself a statement of a fundamental prin-

ciple. That it is expressed in the form of an apostrophe does not diminish its force."

Of the growth of the council during the last four years, Mrs. Sewall said: "If you question the growth of the council itself, I must refer you to our banners. Of the seventeen national organizations, the name and titles of which are inscribed thereon, only seven were members at the first triennial."

"The work of the council has been carried on through standing committees, three of which were organized in 1891, and one in 1894. The names of the committees indicate their object: namely, Committee on Dress, Committee on Divorce Reform, Committee on Equal Pay for Equal Work, and the Committee on Patriotism."

The names of distinguished women are found on these committees. Mrs. Frances E. Russell of Indianapolis, chairman of the first named committee, has become familiar to the reading public through the discussions of the dress question in the *Arena*, *Review of Reviews*, and the *Woman's Journal*. Associated with her are Annie Jenness-Miller, Octavia W. Bates, Annie L. Sloane, and Frank Stuart Parker. On divorce reform the chairman is Mrs. Ellen Battelle Dietrick, with Mrs. Mary A. Livermore and Mrs. Fanny B. Ames as associates. On patriotic instruction, Mrs. Kate Brownlee Sherwood is chairman, and Frances E. Willard, Caroline E. Merrick, Isabella Charles Davis, Eliza D. Keith, and Mary Desha are most worthy members. The remaining committee, on a matter of universal interest to woman, on equal pay for equal work, is composed of Lucia E. Blount, Mary Desha, and Mrs. Leland Stanford.

One feature of this gathering of women in 1895, at Washington, was the change in the system of transacting business. It was provided at this meeting that henceforth the council shall consist of two houses similar to the American Congress, the French Assembly, and the British Parliament. One writer says, "It is gratifying, indeed, to see that women are showing

themselves capable of comprehending and applying the rules of parliamentary usage in the most intelligent manner."

Mrs. Mary Lowe Dickinson of New York was elected president of the National Council. She has great literary attainments and is one of the leaders in the great organization of King's Daughters. Mrs. Louise Barnum Robbins of Michigan is the new corresponding secretary. She is a cultivated woman of literary tastes and intellectual endowments, enriched by a liberal education. Gifted with fine executive ability, she has been prominent in many lines of national work. Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton is the honorary president of the council, and is a fine looking, snowy-haired matron, who apparently laughs at time. More than fourscore years of age, yet she devotes at least six hours a day to literary work ; discussing such topics as female suffrage, municipal administration, government reform, industrial economy, co-operation, trades-unions. and working women's clubs. Other prominent members are Lulu Green Richards, a poet from Utah ; Harriet Taylor Upton of Warren, Ohio, who is editor of the regular council publication. Mrs. Rachel Foster Avery of Philadelphia, a graduate of Zurich University, and a newly elected member of the cabinet ; Rev. Anna Howard Shaw, a woman of national reputation, a fine conversationalist, a born wit, and a most convincing speaker ; Dr. Julia Holmes Smith of Chicago, a prominent leader in the intellectual work of women in that city, and the organizer and first president of the Woman's Medical Association. Her contributions to medical literature are by no means insignificant. Very many others might be mentioned, but enough names have been given, with a sufficient outline of the work done, to prove that the session was a most important event of the year 1895. It also is certain evidence of the rapid advance of women in thought and industry, and of the skill and strength they are displaying in organizing themselves in every part of the land.

The closing paragraph of Mrs. Sewall's address expresses the hope the women belonging to the council hold with regard to the future, and is as follows :—

"When we look at the National Council as it is, so small it seems in numbers, when compared with all whom we wish within its membership; so insignificant it seems in influence, when balanced against the forms of ignorance and injustice, to a continual conflict with which it is committed by its constitution, that the heart may sink and hope fail. But when we look at the Board of Lady Managers, at the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary, at all national organizations of women outside the council, at all national organizations of women within the council; when we contemplate the sublime spectacle presented during the past week at Convention Hall under the auspices of the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union, of which the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union of the United States is so large a part, and when we see all of these as fruits of the planting of 1848, and then look at ourselves and regard our work as a planting, we may take heart of courage, and may say, with a consciousness that there is no arrogance in the claim and no exaggeration in the prophecy: We, the women of the National Council, are a power; we, the women of the National Council, are a light; we, the women of the National Council, are an inspiration; and in the future of manhood united with a womanhood on a plane of moral purity higher and more exacting even than that hitherto demanded of women alone; a womanhood united with a manhood on a plane of physical strength and intellectual culture greater than has hitherto been held as man's ideal, shall in the relatively perfect world, in which such men and such women shall live and move and have their happy being, look back to this date as to a planting and to us as sowers of good seed."

WOMAN IN SOCIETY.

HER POWER IN MOLDING CHARACTER.

IN the beginning of the human race, woman had the care of the children and the home, or of whatever served for a home. With the advancement of civilization, her home duties enlarged, her sphere widened, and, in time, became the nucleus of society; we find woman a prominent factor among the Egyptian and Hebrew peoples.

We find an advance made when we consider the life of the woman of the Roman Empire; for there we see that her influence had outgrown the family limits, and that she had a power in national enterprises, as Cornelia, the mother and inspiration of the Gracchi.

In the history of France, when the spirit of revolution was rife, and the disorganization of society seemed imminent, and men were thirsting for war and strife, such women as Madame De Stäel and Madame Necker used their power to hold society together; opened their salons, and inspired men to better thoughts and nobler efforts—such as helped to bring peace and order.

With the beginning of the nineteenth century, woman's influence in society has broadened, and, while she is still the inspiration in her home, her influence has widened out on all sides and she has become a great and potent factor in the history of the human race. Her position, interests, ability, education, are so changed in these later years that it clearly was the part of the work of this century to alter the condition of

woman. This could hardly have been accomplished without the help of a new agent in the mind of woman herself; which Mrs. Julia Ward Howe names "a disinterested interest in each other, and in woman in general."

Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin, a prominent member of society in the city of Chicago, said in an address upon "The Social Aspects of Life": "The function of society is greatly underestimated. In truth, to be a member of society is what men and women strive for—spend their money for. Yet to be a member of society without sacrificing individuality, through a vain striving to become a leader in a false social world, necessitates an intimacy with the meaning of social life which can only be attained through culture and a refined appreciation of pleasure which is born of an unselfish desire to share in the common life. The philosophy of life is incomplete which excludes pleasure—that peculiar delight which is known in the soul when one realizes that there is within the great social and intellectual forces of the world a new life which it is possible to crystallize into an ideal."

Therefore, that side of education is essential which trains a man or woman rightly to use the social relationships of our civilization. The claim is made that education aims to fit one for social life, and this is partly true. But in the past the idea has been to educate the intellect; and usually the effect was to place the cultured, well-educated person out of sympathy with those less favored. The social instinct was ignored, and thus sympathy was limited, and a class feeling created. This does not meet the highest ideal, for such an education is self-centered, and fails because it is not passed on to another.

What is Society? What does it mean? Are we not laboring under an erroneous impression as to its meaning? Surely the "Four Hundred" about whom we have heard so much do not constitute it. They are a "passing bubble" on the waves of time. The common idea of social life, that of gayety and

›asure-seeking, the wearing of fine clothing, is no more a rt of social life than one's appearance is of his inner being.

Society is really the companionship of intelligent men and ›men who enjoy literature, art, music, conversation, and who ve a definite idea of the part they have to play in developing ucation ; who are able to point out and make the right use of t and luxury ; who can make plain the right enjoyment of e, when art and luxury are lacking ; who have an apprecia- ›n of good manners ; who know that a word kindly spoken, a ›asant smile, or a timely expression of sympathy, have the wer to propitiate the adverse forces of life. Just here the ission of woman is apparent.

In the present time, which seems to be one of unrest and ange, is not the statement made by leaders in moral and cial reform true, viz., that women have more influence upon ciety to-day than men have ? Men in this industrial and mmercial age are absorbed in business enterprises, and very rgely leave the home, the church, social and philanthropic terprises in the hands of wives, mothers, and sisters. In this ay, all women are forming the social character of humanity. ıe expression *all women* includes the rich, the intellectual, the ›urgeoise, the working woman, and the woman of the slums. these all understood the times, all comprehended the marvel- ıs influence they possess, all felt the grand meaning of the ords "mother," "wife," "humanity," would not some of the uses of unrest and dissatisfaction so rife in society be done vay ?

The great majority understand it not, however, so, upon ose who do, falls the greater responsibility. Some of these ›tter-fitted, better-educated women forget that they are that one ; forget that they are a part of the select "four hundred" ; › not pride themselves on their position, nor their riches, though eir homes are as elegant and beautiful as art and wealth ›mbined can render them ; but they *do* pride themselves that

they are a part of humanity, and they use the gifts and talents which God has bestowed upon them for the betterment of those who have them not.

This is the feeling that is occupying the minds of thoughtful women, and sending them to college and university for a higher education; from there to college and social settlements, to working girls' clubs, to slums as missionaries and kindergarten teachers. It is this new idea as to what constitutes social life that interests many a woman in philanthropic work, and arouses in her that sympathy for humanity which makes her loved and respected, not for her giving, but for her living, and for her honest attempt to show what life is for and what it means to live.

Taking this view of life, which, think you, is the true leader of society? She who is the queen of some "four hundred," or the woman who contributes to general society some permanent good?

But I hear some one say, This is not what I expected to read in this chapter! What then? Did you anticipate a picture of life in New York, Chicago, Washington, New Orleans, as portrayed by the daily papers as they spread upon their pages accounts of "affairs in high life"? Perhaps your desire may be gratified. Would you take a peep at society life in Colonial times? You may look at it as Edward Eggleston portrays it. He says:—

"Then women were chiefly esteemed for their good health, sprightliness, beauty, and housewifery. As in all new countries women were scarce, and the demand exceeded the supply. Few remained unmarried; and she was usually an irretrievable old maid who passed twenty without a husband. The education of girls was of the slightest; the female mind was thought quite unsuited to bear more than the rudiments of reading and writing. But there were various 'fine works' such as the making of needlework cornucopias, the painful elaboration of shell

ork, and the making of flowers from silk cuttings, that were aught to girls of wealth as a mark of upper class breeding. attledore was thought very suitable to young ladies of leisure. ome were able to accompany their own singing upon the uitar; the virginal, the spinet, and the harpsichord—quaint ncestors of our piano—were known to some of the most usical among people of wealth. Just before the beginning of he Revolution there began to be found in a very few houses an strument hardly less primitive than these, which is set down n some of the diaries of the day as a 'forte-pianer.'

"If some of our foremothers were intelligent and thoughtful was rather by natural gift than from instruction. Men of ultivation seem to have found it a little irksome to get down the level of topics deemed sufficiently simple for the undertanding of women. 'Conversation with ladies,' says William yrd, 'is like whipped syllabub, very pretty, but nothing in it.' he most accomplished gentlemen of that time thought it necssary to treat their lady friends to flattery so gross that it ould not be bearable now. Byrd, great lord that he was, epaid his lady friends for courteous and hospitable entertainent at their houses by kissing them at his departure, and xcused himself for leaving one gentleman's house by assuring he lady that her beauty would spoil his devotions if he emained.

"The savages were not more fond of dancing than the colonists who came after them. Dancing-schools were forbidden y the authorities, but dancing could not be repressed. Fiddlers were sure of employment; but, failing a fiddler, the dance night go on without him, some one volunteering to guide the lancing by humming the tunes. In centers of fashion, like oston, New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, Williamsburg, and harleston, there were regular assemblies where one might neet 'handsome, well-dressed, compleat gentlemen,' and a brilliant appearance of lovely, well-dressed women,' accord-

ing to the testimony of eye-witnesses. The richness of the costumes at these balls was set off by the stateliness of the ceremonies. Card tables were set out for those who preferred gaming to dancing, and the playing of ladies and gentlemen, often for high stakes, added to the excitement of the evening. Among New Englanders, in later colonial times, the launching of a ship, the raising of a house, the assembling of a county court, and the ordination of a minister were good occasions for dancing, as were many other public and private festivities. Fashionable assemblies and parties in the little provincial capitals began their evenings with the graceful and formal minuet. For this minuet a gentleman sometimes craved the honor of a lady's hand by a note written a week in advance of the time. After the minuet came the country dances, but less fashionable people loved livelier movement. The Virginians were famous for their animated jigs. Pennsylvanians and the Scotch-Irish were fascinated with the 'hipsesaw.' But whatever the dance or the assembly, the lady appears to have been assigned for the entire evening to one partner, with whom she did the greater part of her dancing. Gaming was a vice almost universal. Raffles were common, and lotteries were an approved resort for raising money to accomplish any laudable thing. The ladies of New York were considered virtuous above many others of their sex, because of the moderation of their gambling."

Of social life in New York city, Mrs. Burton Harrison says: "It is conceded by more than one observer who has watched its evolution since the war, that society in New York has, out of its varied elements, built up a much more interesting structure than before. It is a part of history for the old to protest against the new, and to end by coalescing with it. Nowhere has this trait of human nature been more emphasized than in the great commercial center where it is easily within memory to recall sharp denunciation, by certain members of the old Colonial families, of the pretensions of some of those to whose

parties they are now quite eager to be bidden. Said a young scion of an historic stock while discussing the threatened division of society into two factions—the aristocrats, high in established pride of place, and the new element of lavish entertainers: 'Do you think a fellow who can be sure of getting the best music, the best dancing, and the best food in one of the best houses, and in company of women who are all pretty and jolly, where the evening goes like a streak, is likely to prefer crowding into one of the ancestral coffins they call parlors, with a lot of his mother's friends, just because each one of 'em has a pedigree and undertakes to sniff at those who haven't? No, thank you.' This child of the century but voices in his artless way the sentiments of many of his kind. The fusion has begun that a few years hence will cease to call for even a passing comment.

"Many of the people stigmatized as belonging to a heartless, brainless set, are, in truth, the actual springs that supply the great charities, like fountains for wayfarers, about the city of New York. They are continually alert to found, to watch over, and to broaden the scope of scores of noble enterprises meant to lighten the lot of less fortunate humanity. They give personal supervision to the most prosaic details for the entertainment and comfort of thousands of art students, self-supporting women, mechanics, street boys, incurables, and sick. Such a thing as sensational "slumming" is never heard of here; but the newspapers that chronicle the balls and dinners of Mrs. Crœsus might as often report that lady's appearance in a plain gown at the banquet she has provided for newsboys, or among the beds of the hospital she has built and endowed; not to mention that she and her husband and children are generally found among the quiet church-going folk on Sunday in their pews. In domestic life, the same conspicuous type is found to be, as a rule, a devoted wife and mother.

"The complaint of exclusiveness oftenest registered against

the fashionable set is justified by the physical inability of women who go much into society to solve the problem of making both ends meet. The debts incurred in social intercourse, the return of civilities, attention to correspondence, and worse than all, to daily go upon rounds of calls among people scattered between Washington and Stuyvesant squares, and the neighborhoods on either side of Central Park, is as much as the fashionable woman can attempt to meet. Dinner calls, visits of condolence and congratulation; a thousand and one minor claims absorb the hours, and, with all this, many women find time for classes, clubs, courses, and lectures, and often keep up studies in which their young people are employed.

"Those who talk of the rush of the London season should reflect that what the English concentrate into three months, and put aside in favor of a more leisurely and rational existence, is by us spread over the entire year. For, in one way or another, our business of pleasure goes on until June, and is immediately transferred to Newport or Bar Harbor, to be taken in the autumn to Lenox and Tuxedo. Of the brilliancy of New York society to-day, there can be no question. 'An American ball' given in London at the height of the season is attended by many great people avowedly with the design of seeing the decorations and enjoying the supper; and here in our own houses, with our own luxurious surroundings, the thing is even better done than amid hired appendages abroad."

In regard to the dress of the New York woman, Mrs. Harrison says: "Whether she goes to extremes in the matter of dress in public places or not, it is a painful fact that other nations charge us with so doing. The toilets to be seen at the Metropolitan Opera House three evenings of the week are indeed resplendent, but no more so than those on exhibition in the boxes at Covent Garden during the London season, nor are the jewels more profuse. American women are admitted everywhere to have admirable skill in setting forth their charms by

dress. To see New York society on a grand occasion realizes Taine's phrase—it is a 'unique sensation, that of splendor and brilliancy carried to the highest pitch—all the flowers of civilization and nature in a single bouquet and in a single perfume.'"

Of the "Four Hundred" she has this to say: "It is absurd to suppose that a vast and cosmopolitan society like that of New York to-day could crystallize its 'best' into a number so small, so little known to fame save through saltatory agility and the expenditure of unlimited dollars in dinner giving and in gewgaws for the cotillion. Take, in illustration, the assemblage of people recently seen here under one roof—the Madison Square Garden—during the week of the Horse Show. Around the amphitheater devoted to the horses, circled or sat in their boxes a brilliant multitude, including most of the 'smart set': in the assembly room near by, at the same moment, a gathering of cultivated ladies and gentlemen listened to the wit and wisdom of the debate on 'Journalism and the Right of Privacy,' before the Nineteenth Century Club: and in the Garden Theater a goodly audience of well dressed and intelligent people lent ear to the tuneful chirpings of 'La Cigale.' The ladies and gentlemen so often quoted in print are certainly apt to be heard of as each other's guests in the exchange of Vanity Fair; but this does not argue that their doors are never opened for a wider hospitality."

Julian Ralph lets us see New Orleans society as he saw it. Describing the ball given in connection with the *mardi gras* carnival, he says: "But the splendid function, one that I never saw excelled in this country, was the ball of the 'Mistick Krewe of Comus,' given the night of their parade, in the old French Opera House. All the kings and queens, representing all the carnival societies, were in the opening quadrille, all crowned and robed and with their splendid suites. Looking down upon that brilliant mass of dancers were seven rows of the belles of the city—rows unbroken by the jarring presence of a man.

"These ladies were all simply attired in white, pink, pale blue, and all the soft faint colors which distinguish the dress of New Orleans women. Here and there a young girl wore upon her head a narrow fillet of gold, but jewels were few and far apart—a striking omission which greatly dignified the gathering and enhanced the beauty of the spectacle. If one has seen the beauteous women of Spanish descent and the petite and sweet faced French creoles of that city, let him fancy these, and the loveliest American belles, forming seven rows in a theater of grand size, and then let him try his best to picture to himself the wondrous garden of personified flowers that was thus presented.

"The fashionable society of New Orleans is not in any sense a plutocracy. The wealth of those who have it is shared by those who have it not. Among the fashionables, the rich and poor meet on a footing which the rich are at such pains to make equal that they are often plain in their entertainments, in order that they may not hurt the sensitiveness or strain the resources of the others when it is their turn to open their houses.

"Again, while 'society' here loves pleasure keenly, and, as we have seen, makes a business of some sorts of it, there is nevertheless, an intellectual wing to it, with a liking for and an inclination to pursue art and literature. Several ladies, led, perhaps, by Mrs. Mollie Moore Davis, who has a marvelous gift for gathering bright folks about her in her quaint house in the French quarter, find it a pleasure to entertain and introduce such visitors as have interested them by their work. In the intervals between the gracious ministrations these ladies—with not a blue stocking but a host of beauties among them—entertain one another with well written papers, wise debates, and music and recitations at meetings that only end with the fracture of a circle that has formed around a tempting display of refreshments.

"I did not hear how they dress in summer, but when I rode through the Garden District—the new part of the town—my lady friends pointed to the galleries and said: 'You should see them in the summer, before the people leave, or after they come back. The entire population is out of doors in the air, and the galleries are loaded with women in soft colors, mainly white. They have white dresses by the dozen. They go about without their hats, in carriages and street cars, visiting up and down the streets. Indoors one must spend one's whole time and energy in vibrating a fan!' The best place to see the famed belles of New Orleans is in the French Opera House on a fashionable night at the opera. Then there are scores of them there, blondes with limpid blue eyes and complexions of roses and cream; brunettes of the purest types, with rounding forms, great black orbs, hair of Japanese black, and skins of softest brown; Spanish creoles with true oval faces, long narrow eyes, the same soft sun-kissed complexions, with proud bearing, and mouths like Cupid's bow. With them are our American girls from all over the country, boasting the eclectic beauty of many blended nationalities. The place is like a great bouquet. They dress almost like Parisians, and that is one great secret of the fame they have won."

Chicago's social life, and a glance at the part women play in it, should not be passed without mention, for it is the typical city of the great West. I know of no pleasanter guide on this journey than he who gave us the bright view of life in the Crescent City.

He admits the truth of the remark of Mr. James Dredge, one of the British Commissioners to the Columbian Exposition, that the "race in life is not always to the swift, but rather to those who understand the luxury and advantage of repose, as well as sustained effort." Julian Ralph also discovers that this wellspring of repose is to be found in Chicago "in the spirit of the women," that it is a "notable feature of Chicago homes."

He also remarks that "the women contribute more than this, for from the polish of travel and trained minds their leaders reflect those charms which find expression in good taste and manners, a love of art and literature, and in the ability to distinguish merit and good-breeding above mere wealth and pedigree."

"I do not believe that in any older American city we shall find fashionable women so anxious to be considered patrons of art and of learning, or so forward in works of public improvement and governmental reform as well as of charity. It is necessary to add that not all the modish women there belong in this category. There is a wholly gay and idle butterfly set in Chicago, but it is small, and the distinctive peculiarity of which I speak lies in the fact that in all the societies and movements we see the names of rich and stylish women. They entertain elegantly, are accustomed to travel, and rank with any others in the town, yet are associated with those forceful women whose astonishing activity has worked wonders in that city. The Chicago woman whose name is farthest known is Mrs. Potter Palmer. She is the wife of a man who is there not altogether improperly likened, in his relation to that city, to one of the Astors in New York. Yet she was at the head of the Woman's Department or commission of the Exposition, and is active in a score of women's organizations of widely differing aims.

"The Chicago men are proud of the women, and tell that there is a keen rivalry among those who are well-to-do for the possession of nice houses, and for the distinction of giving good and frequent dinner parties, and of entertaining well. Though they spend a deal of money in this way they are not mercenary: they do not worship wealth. Their first question about a newcomer is neither as to his wealth nor his ancestry. Even more than in Washington do the Chicago women respect talent, and vie with one another to honor those who have any standing in

the world of intellect. In the last ten years the leading circles of women there have undergone a revolution. Women from the female colleges and who have lived abroad or in the Eastern cities have displaced the earlier leaders, have married and become the mistresses of the homes, as well as the mothers of daughters for whose future social standing they are solicitous."

The numerous fine residences of Chicago are celebrated for their costliness and beauty, a great variety of cultivated taste being displayed in their building; but our authority thinks that the Chicago women deserve the palaces in which they rule.

"Their stylishness is the first striking characteristic of the women of Chicago. It is a Parisian quality, apparent in New York first, and in Chicago next, among all our cities. The number of women who dress well in Chicago is very remarkable, and only there and in New York do the shop girls and working women closely follow the prevailing modes."

It is well known that the membership of the Woman's Club, which numbers five hundred, and is the instigator of woman's public work in that city, is made up of almost every kind of woman, from the ultra-fashionable society leaders, to the working women, and includes literary and other professional women, business women, and plain wives and daughters. Among them are Mrs. Potter Palmer, Mrs. Dunlap, a brilliant society leader, Mrs. Henrotin, Mrs. Matilda B. Carse, whose reputation of being "the chief business woman of the continent" is given by the people of her own city. Her success in planning and raising the money for building "The Temple" is well known. Mrs. Caroline K. Sherman and Mrs. George E. Adams are social rulers, and yet active in all the works undertaken by the club.

The amount of good accomplished by these women in reform work at the insane asylum, the city poor house, in the board of police as advisory board, in the establishment of a protective agency, reform at the county jail, in founding a training school

for boys, in furnishing a hospital for contagious diseases, work in municipal reform, as well as in all the literary and musical societies which this city boasts, is enormous; and a contemplation of it brings us back to the thoughts presented in the beginning of this chapter, viz. :—

We do find that women make social life, and the woman's club movement, inaugurated about thirty years ago, has proved a most powerful factor in modern progress. Clubs were rapidly organized throughout the country, most of them of a literary character; this was wise, for women of various denominations and social sets could more easily be united on an intellectual basis than upon any other. The object of the woman's club and the results of its existence have been to create a fellowship among women, upon some common interest in literary culture, in education, in art, in scientific investigation or in study of social questions, and to prove that a "fine social life" is the end and result of the best civilization.

They are discovering that many errors in our social life have arisen from a lack of sympathy in the interests of others, and are coming to understand how much greater enjoyment may be derived from a larger intercourse, in which all may lend their arts and themselves to one another for mutual helpfulness.

Even as the flowers of the field, the lily and the thistle, the rose and the daisy, mingle their perfume and lend each their peculiar beauty to the adornment of nature, so does the human soul breathe out its spirit. If each has her place, no whit of the spirit's beauty will be wasted, but the perfume of it will arise on the wings of sympathy and love, those attributes of divinity which radiate from every human soul.

WOMAN AND THE HOME.

THE FOUNTAIN AND STRENGTH OF STATE AND NATION.

"A partnership with God is motherhood;
What strength, what purity, what self-control,
What love, what wisdom, should belong to her
Who helps God fashion an immortal soul!"

"Man needs woman's clearer vision, her subtler insight, her softer thought, her winged soul, her pure and tender thought. Woman needs man's vigor of purpose, the ardor of his will, his calmer judgment, his braver force of action, his reverence, and his devotion."

—*Mary Clemmer Ames.*

THE home is by common consent woman's true sphere. Whatever other spheres she may rightly enter and fill with her activities, here is her first and most important province. The home, whatever it is, becomes the doom of every child born into it—makes or mars the happiness of all its inmates. Within its walls civilization is always advancing or declining. Love and equity, those infinite and omnipotent forces, are the great civilizers that must and do work in every true home.

It has come to be one of the settled convictions of the race, that the reciprocal love of one man and one woman, with equal morality and equal intelligence for both, makes the best foundations for the fairest blossom of human life—the home.

Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst says: "The unit of society is the home. Enrollment that assumes to be thorough is not a registration by individuals, but by families. If we were to say that the structure of society is cellular, we should have to say that it is *the family* that constitutes each separate cell. No man,

however entire, is a cell. No woman, however complete, is a cell. There is no finished cell except in the grouping of several individuals bound by the ties of domesticity. A bachelor is a dislocated fragment. His female counterpart is in the same category. It may not be their fault. It may lie in the necessity of their case. Still, it is a condition foreign to divine intention.

"It is to the family, therefore, that we shall have to look as being the prime point of concern in all that relates to the weal of our times and our kind. The strength and health of society are to be measured by the amount of affectionate emphasis that is laid on the home idea, and the wholesomeness of society is the sanctity of the home writ large. Homes are each of them the separate roots that carry their several contributions to the organized structure of the general life. The home is the first church, and the first state. There is nothing in either of the two that is not initially present in a small way inside the home circle."

If, as we believe, these words of the eminent divine are true, it will scarcely be necessary to assure the reader that no reference is made to the so-called homes in heathen countries; in those lands where home, family, church, mother, God,—those words so inexpressibly dear to us,—have no such meaning as they convey to us. There woman is degraded; there homes are simply dwellings. Christ is not known, and the love that his coming brings to "all men" is not understood. Then we shall say the true home is one where the spirit of love rules, permeating and influencing every element contained therein: destroying selfishness, and all evils springing therefrom, and shedding from its center, rays of joy and happiness to all within its circle of influence. And what share has woman in this "place beautiful"? for such a place can be rightly termed beautiful if it be only a quiet, humble country home, a sod-house on the distant prairie, or the elegant city mansion. What does woman do as mother, wife, daughter, or sister, towards the building of such a place, the formation of such conditions?

WOMAN AND THE HOME.

With all the changes that the years have brought about regarding the life of woman, the ideal of womanhood in its essence has not changed. We may desire additional graces, more learning, a wider sphere of service, a broader recognition of her influence; but none of these dim the vision of the being whose crowning gift shall be her perfect womanliness.

In judging the character of any woman, we are not satisfied with brilliancy of intellect, quickness of wit, skill in a profession, power as an orator, or strength as a leader. It is not enough that she shall be even a wise mother, a devoted wife and faithful friend, unless permeating all these, diffused like a heavenly atmosphere, is the spirit of love.

The woman in whose nature are combined wisdom, judgment, practical genius, and a winning lovableness, glorifies every relation of life, whether as daughter, sister, wife, mother, or friend. Tried, she will never be found wanting. However much the outside world may be privileged to know of such a woman, in philanthropy, art, literature, or religion, it is not to the public at large that the fairest side of her lovely character is revealed. It is the home center that is irradiated with a pure love light, which is certain to find its way to all within its circle; a light that, when darkened by death, would leave hearts utterly desolate, were it not for blessed memories and the hope of immortality.

That the family and the home are civilizing elements is illustrated by a comparison of the methods, the motives, and the outcome of the colony at Jamestown and that of Plymouth in the early days of this republic. These were the original sources of American society, and shaped its development. Both races were vigorous offshoots of the same English stock developed under different conditions. The character and the motives of the men who came from England to the Virginia colony for profit and wealth made up the first radical difference between the two colonies. They came for money, not for religious freedom, *and were sadly* disappointed. They met the same hard-

ships as did the New Englanders, but these hardships were received with a rebellious, combative spirit, resulting from their idle lives. They were impatient, and grew reckless. These unhappy adventurers had no home ties. They were adrift in the wilderness, without wives or children, and had no incentive to perform honest work. Worthless leaders made a bad condition, but the absence of the civilizing element, wives and children, was fatal. The Plymouth colony had their homes and families. These Virginians had neither. The colony was going to quick destruction, and was rescued partly by a change of leaders and by the arrival of other settlers; but mainly by the arrival of sixty maidens who were sent from England to the colony to become the wives of planters, and for whom a large quantity of tobacco was paid to the company. Among these maidens were the mothers of Virginia found.

Women have never held an unimportant place in the history of this country, and emphasis should be placed on that part of the early life of Americans, which was its basis, the domestic existence of the pioneers. If man discovered this country, woman has made it fit to live in. No colony succeeded in establishing itself permanently until women came to make homes, for the family is the foundation of social organization. On its well-being depends the well-being of the state. The man and woman form their family, that, in turn, forms the state.

While the belief in the advanced woman and the educated woman, and her right to vote, and all that, may be strong and well grounded, equally thorough must be the belief in the necessity of preserving the dignity of the domestic life and labor. The women who lead quiet uneventful home lives are not recognized as they should be, but when woman herself fully recognizes the importance and beauty of such lives, and acts upon the recognition, will she fulfill her highest mission.

American women inherit the love of independence and brilliancy and work for it along professional lines, but these same

inherited elements should be brought into the home life, and the woman who stays at home leading a simple but strong life should be credited with as noble a part in this world as the successful artist or brilliant professional woman.

There is an old Greek proverb which says, "Mighty is the power of motherhood." The mother's influence in developing character, and impressing the social and national life, is thus seen to have taken hold of the mind of the keen and speculative Greek. That it is equally clear to the thinker of the present time is evinced by the modern putting of the old proverb, "The world needs mothering."

Ruskin says: "What the world needs now is to be told the story of everyday life and people. Not remarkable events, nor what uncommon persons did, but what the men and women like you and like me said and did; how they met life; what they made of it, just as we have to meet life and make it, a blessing or a curse."

This is true, but it is the lives of great men and great women that we study. They are our examples, our models. The more we study them, the more positive we are that the difference between men and women is largely caused by the advantages offered being accepted and used, or neglected and abused; and that we are nearly all, at the beginning, "everyday people."

As we come to know the lives of men, we find there has been, in the shaping of those lives, an influence, hidden and unrecognized, which has shaped the life of many a moral giant whose power has moved the world.

What a revelation is there in the "Confessions" of Augustine! Augustine was born in 354 A. D. His father was a pagan; but his mother, Monica, was a devout Christian. His father desired that Augustine should become a fine scholar, as he "observed that many people were obtaining large incomes by their wits." Accordingly, the boy was sent to school to Carthage. Previous to this Monica had been his best instructor,

and a religious education had been given him at home. How faithful she was may be judged by the following testimony of Neander: "Whatever treasures of virtue and worth the life of faith, even of a soul not trained by scientific culture, can bestow, was set before him in the example of his pious mother."

Her prayers for the salvation of her son were unceasing: and for many years it seemed as if her greatest desire was not to be obtained; for Augustine became devoted to the study of rhetoric, and, plunging into a wild life of sensual pleasure, became in his nineteenth year a pronounced heretic. For nine years, he says, he "wallowed in the slime of that deep pit, and the darkness of falsehood." Still the mother prayed and exhorted. He went to Rome, and soon to Milan, where he became a teacher of rhetoric. His mother's prayers followed him there, although his going was against her wish. He says, "I deceived her, and feigned that I had a friend whom I could not leave till he had a fair wind to sail. And I lied to my mother, and to such a mother, and escaped."

No change, however, could have been more fortunate. At this time the Bishop of Milan was the eloquent and devout St. Ambrose, whom Augustine often heard preach. Monica finally followed her son to Milan. Her continued prayers and entreaties combined with the powerful influence of Ambrose deepened his conviction, until finally he was enabled to believe. All the stormy struggles, which he so painfully but nobly depicts, were over. The Spirit of God triumphed. This was in 386 A. D. The next year he set out in company with his mother to return home. At Ostia, on the Tiber, Monica died; her eyes had seen the salvation of her son and she could depart in peace. How much the church and the world owe to her, for no mind has exerted greater influence on the church than that of Augustine.

Of an entirely different nature was John Chrysostom—the "Golden-mouthed," so named from the splendor of his eloquence. None of those wild, dark struggles with sinful pas-

sions, which left their ineffaceable impress on the soul of Augustine, did he experience. Anthusa, his mother, was a pious woman. She was early left a widow, and greatly devoted to her son, who grew up under her loving instruction into an earnest, gentle, serious youth. He studied oratory, and soon excelled his teacher. After the death of Anthusa, he entered the service of religion. He was elected archbishop of Constantinople, holding that position for sixteen years. He was bold and resolute, denouncing sin, whether in palace or hovel. His faithfulness cost him his life. He was exiled to a desolate tract in Asia, dying on the journey. The names of the persecutors are not remembered, but those of Anthusa and Chrysostom will never be forgotten.

George Washington always acknowledged his indebtedness to the faithful training and example of his mother, Mary Washington. The beauty of Washington's character is nowhere more evident than in his great reverence and love for his mother, and he rendered her loving and dutiful obedience while she lived. She was a very resolute woman, and had the power of great self-control in the presence of danger or difficulty. The death of her husband left her with five young children. She comprehended the responsibilities thrust upon her, and accepted the trust with fidelity and success. Sensible, tender, and watchful, she lived to see her children fill honorable positions in life, and her eldest son an illustrious man.

"Mary, the Mother of Washington," are the simple, but eloquent words inscribed on her monument.

Susannah Wesley, the mother of John and Charles Wesley, was a woman of remarkable intelligence and fervent piety. She devoted herself to the education of her children, particularly to their religious education; the results of which were far-reaching,—the influence extending until the present time. It will probably never cease, for these two sons became the renowned founders of Methodism in England and in America.

Dr. J. H. Vincent, now bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, a man well known on account of his connection with the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, in a little book bearing the simple title "My Mother," tells the story of the life of the woman who bore to him this sacred relationship.

The book is a record of the simple life of one busy, earnest, woman. The author shows her to have been gentle and unassuming, the "central figure of a little home group," and yet she filled a large place in social life. The calls of friendship were never neglected, and yet it seemed evident to all that her home was her absorbing care.

The story also presents the mother as filling the office of teacher and filling it so well as to remain always for those she taught, *the* teacher. Her success indicates how great she felt this responsibility to be, as well as her thoroughness of preparation for it. She not only instructed, and pointed the way, but she guided; by her conduct saying, "Come, and let us seek out the best things together." Evidently she believed the building of a symmetrical, strong, upright character to be the duty of every individual, and saw in every duty, every care, and every joy, in every event, an opportunity to be turned to this account.

The source of this woman's power in life was her strong Christian faith. Did ever such a life flow from other source? She showed "that the best proof of the divinity of the Christian religion is the daily life of the Christian."

Bishop Vincent entitles this tribute to the memory of his mother, "An Appreciation"; and there is great meaning in these appreciative words of a ripe manhood as it pays reverence to conscientious motherhood.

Many are the noble men, and women too, who have given loving, tender testimony to the influence of the mother in the molding of their lives.

John Quincy Adams said, "All that I am my mother made me."

Coleridge reverenced his mother. He once said, "A mother is a mother still, the holiest thing alive."

Milton's letters often allude to his mother in the most affectionate terms.

Sir Walter Raleigh said that he owed all his politeness of deportment to his mother.

Mohammed revered his mother, and in his teachings inculcated a similar reverence.

Victor Hugo loved his mother with a great love. She died in 1821, after Victor had entered upon his literary career. She had devoted much care and pains to the training of her children, especially to Victor. Her teaching, although vigorous and wholesome, was tender, and accompanied with systematic discipline, but it was such as to make her sons men of true nobility of character. It was hard for Victor to realize that he had lost the one who above all others had inspired in his soul a love for the beautiful and reverence for the good.

The love that the lamented James A. Garfield had and manifested for his aged mother helped to endear him to the people of this country.

"History is replete with notable instances bearing testimony to the fact that of all human forces influencing human lives no other is so strong, so enduring, as that exerted by a mother. Artists have painted, poets have sung, philosophers have taught the same truth; and, of far greater importance than any of these, men and women in all the lowly, crowded walks of life have demonstrated it in their character. All unite in declaring that greater than any other tribute which mortals can have the honor of paying is the tribute to a noble mother."

Mother love is

"the love that none forgets,
The bread which God divides and multiplies,
A table ever spread where bounteous grace
To each his portion gives, to none denies."